

A Look at

Continuity

in the School Program





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in the School Program

1958 Yearbook

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

A department of the National Education Association of the United States

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ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

A department of the
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From the Association

THE GROWTH and guidance of children and older learners sometimes get lost in institutional procedures. This is exactly the kind of problem that the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development is characteristically concerned with. Hence the choice of problem and this yearbook.

The 1958 Yearbook Committee cut through the maze of administrative ideas associated with articulation and chose as its goal "*to further continuity of learning experience toward educational objectives.*" This committee chose the realistic approach of studying the experiences of some 3000 children with articulation and inarticulation, with frustration and smooth progress toward educational objectives. The committee made a thorough analysis of teaching, curriculum, guidance and administrative practices in terms of learning.

This book makes a timely contribution coming as it does at a point when many educational workers are restudying their educational practices in terms of the principles of child (human) development. This is a time of "firming up" of practices. It is a time of extensive in-service education. The yearbook committee provides guidance to these movements by reaching down to fundamentals and pointing out the general applicability of learning principles in all situations and at all age levels. The committee highlights the fundamental idea that desirable degrees and types of continuity among children's learning experiences will eventually come about if procedures and policies are consistent with sound psychological principles and clearly formulated educational objectives. Part Three with its positive recommendations should be especially helpful to school faculties.

The yearbook is formulated pretty largely within the framework of present school organization, curriculum content and administrative practice. It should be recognized that schools like other institutions, and teaching like other concepts and practices, will probably change a great deal in the future. However, the principles and the philosophy outlined should apply in any organization. Presumably the practices that evolve will provide a better climate for growth and development.

Many people collaborated to bring out this yearbook. Certainly ESTHER SWENSON and her committee associates deserve our warmest congratulations. Superintendent ROBERT S. GILCHRIST contributed a great deal in his liaison role as continuing representative of the Executive Committee of ASCD. All members of the Executive Committee

read and commented upon the original manuscript. MARGARET GILL, associate secretary, ASCD, read the original manuscript and made editorial suggestions. ROBERT R. LEEPER, associate secretary, ASCD, worked with the original manuscript, did final editing on the volume and directed its production. FLORENCE O. SKUCE, of the NEA Publications Division, assisted in paging, proofreading and other aspects of production. Cover and title page are by the NEA Publications Division, DE GRAFFENRIED W. LIST, artist.

G. ROBERT KOOPMAN, *President*
For the ASCD Executive Committee

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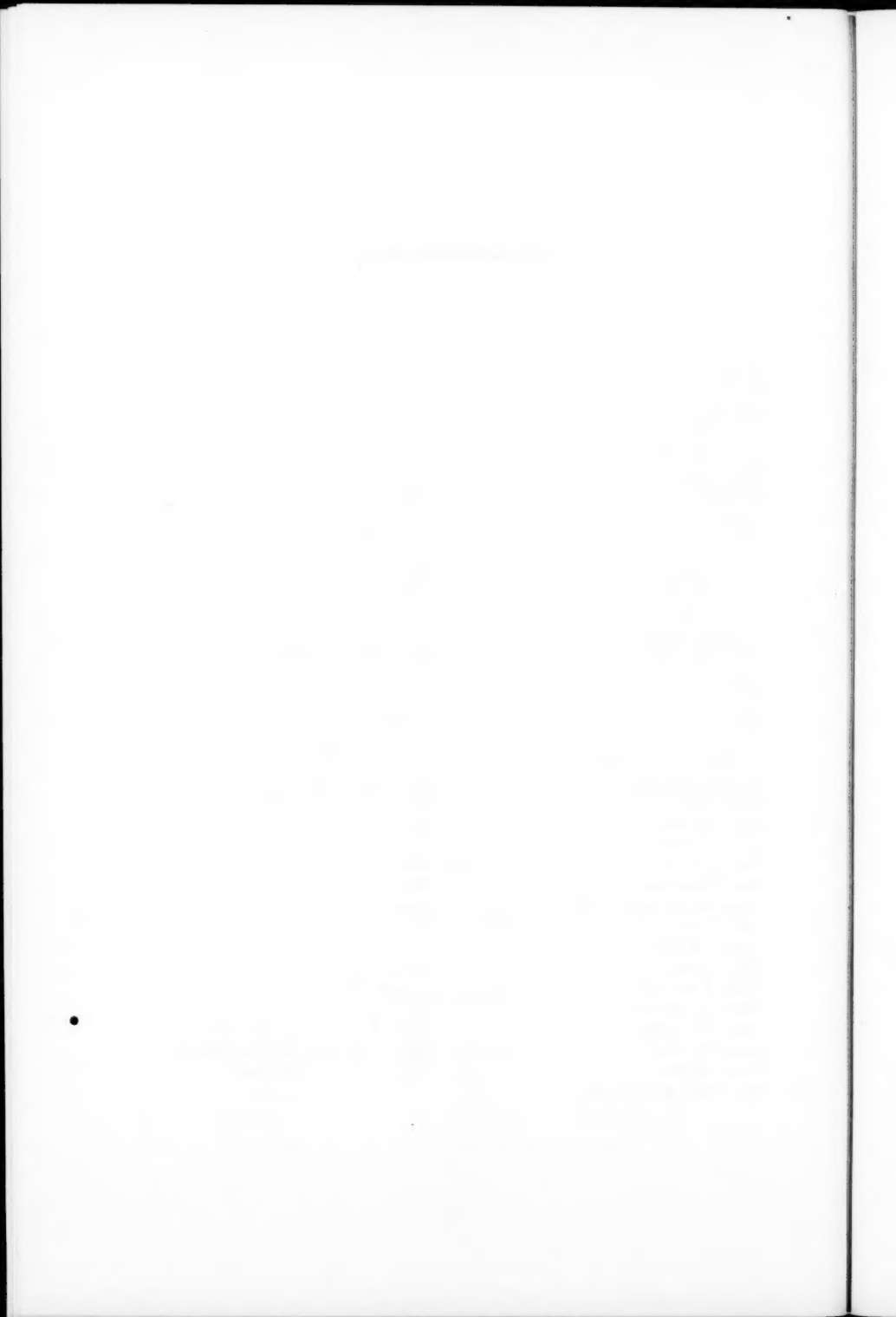
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Introduction

THE TAXI driver swung his cab out into the stream of city traffic. "It's a rough day for us cab drivers," he commented over his shoulder. "All this snow we've been having is a mess! The pavements are slippery and covered with slush. That's bad enough without snow in the air to cut down visibility. I'm afraid it's going to take a while to get you ladies to where you're going."

It did "take a while," but the running commentary from the front seat never faltered. "What convention is that at the hotel where you're staying? I see the sign says ASCD, but what's that?"

"The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development."

"Well! What's that? Teachers?"

"Yes, that should be close enough."

"If you're teachers, let me tell you about my boy. He's in the Explorers. They're going on a trip to Miami. That boy gets around everywhere with the Explorer Scouts—nothing like when I went to school! I never left my home town in Indiana till I came here after I was married.

"See that taller office building back of that flat one down the street? You can't see it very well because of the snow; but you see the lights in the windows. My wife works there—secretary to a big executive. She sure is smart. Guess that's where the boys get their brains.

"The school keeps sending us commendation slips about our other boy. He's in the fifth grade, and he brings home commendation slips all the time. They've called us up to school three times now to talk about putting him ahead a grade. They say he gets through with his lessons too fast and then he gets into mischief. They say the work would be harder in the next grade but he could do it all right and it would keep him busy and out of mischief.

"My wife won't listen to it, and I don't like the idea myself. She got through high school when she was fifteen because she skipped two grades. She said it made her sort of a misfit. She could do the school-work all right, but she was younger than the others and they treated her like a child. She says they should have given her more work to do where she was and let her go along with the friends she started with.

"Besides, I don't want the boy to think he's so much smarter than the

other kids that he can't work along with those his own age. When he shows me all those commendation slips, I say, 'That's good, son; but you don't know everything yet. You keep on working, 'cause you've got a good head and the more you use it, the more you can learn. You're good but you're not perfect.' I say that 'cause I don't want him to get cocky and think he's better than the other kids. They wouldn't like him if he got cocky about being smart in school.

"You know, that's important—getting along with the other kids. That's just as important as learning from books. I tell his teacher to keep him busy where he is so he can go along with the boys his age and know how to fit in with them. They keep saying he gets into mischief. I say, 'Keep him busy. Have him wash the blackboards. Send him on errands. He's not too good to do that. Just keep him where he is and keep him busy. He'll grow up better that way, with his pals. I don't want a misfit genius on my hands.'"

The cab driver did not know it, but he was talking to two members of the ASCD committee charged with writing the present yearbook on school articulation. He had given an excellent example of one type of articulation problem—the problem of how to deal with a bright child who was not adequately challenged by the schoolwork he was being asked to do. The father understood the need for the boy to make proper social adjustments with his age group. He understood that it was important to keep the boy busy, but his prescription of blackboard washing and errand running could certainly have been supplanted by more constructive challenges to the boy's abilities within the school curriculum. The school's simple solution of "passing him on" was perhaps not too sound either if the father was correct in the implication that all children in each grade were given the same amount and type of work to do, regardless of ability.

This boy's problem was one of lack of challenge, which in turn resulted in wasted time, boredom and mischief. Probably more school children have articulation problems of the opposite kind, resulting from inability to handle tasks expected of them.

Every human being needs to learn to make adjustments to his physical, social and intellectual environment. An important part of every child's education is learning how to meet problems and how to deal with them. An important part of every school's task is to help pupils face problems and make adjustments to difficult situations.

On the other hand, it is not good for a child to have so many adjustments to make that he becomes confused and discouraged. It is not good education to strew the learner's path with insuperable barriers to

progress. No pupil's journey through our schools should be a continuous obstacle course.

But such barriers do exist! They are far too prevalent. Some of them are relatively trivial—Miss Smith in the fourth grade teaches one form of friendly letters; Miss Jones in the fifth grade insists on another; Mrs. Brown in the sixth grade has a fondness for still another variation. Johnny is bewildered, loses all interest in what he had intended to say in the letter, and decides letter writing is an awful chore to be avoided whenever possible.

Some artificial barriers to progress are more serious. In the sixth grade, Mary, though somewhat immature for her years, has attained a fair degree of security in her relations with other children and the teacher, who stays with the children all during the school day. Mary feels as if she belongs. Then comes the seventh grade and a new school, a longer trip to school, new classmates along with the old ones, new teachers, with many strange ways of doing things, many different assignments made in different ways, a strange building, complicated ways of doing simple things like going to an unfamiliar library for a book. A multiplicity of minor frustrations descending all at once! Are all of them necessary?

Next consider Joe, who moves to a new home in a strange community. Life for him becomes very complex. The house in which he lives, the neighborhood surrounding that house, the whole community—all are strange. In the new school to which he goes, the teachers do things differently from the teachers in his former school; the routine of school life is handled differently; the actual curriculum content is different in many ways. Perhaps most of all he is troubled by the loss of old friends and the problems of making new ones. Some of his adjustments are outside the school's sphere of influence; some of them are very much the school's concern if the transient child is to continue his educational journey without too great delay.

In professional language, we say that Johnny and Mary and Joe face "problems of articulation." We say that the teaching of letter writing to Johnny is "not well articulated" from grade to grade. We say that "articulation is poor" between the elementary school and the junior high school Mary attended. We say that Joe's difficulties in transferring from his former school home to his new one show some "lack of articulation" or show "inarticulation" between the schools in different communities.

What Is Articulation?

Since this volume is devoted entirely to the subject of educational articulation, it is essential that we give our definition of the term.

Sometimes a word has a basic meaning common to several areas of use but several specific meanings in different contexts. Perhaps we may enrich the special meaning of such a word for a specific situation by stepping back, as it were, to view it in the perspective of its broader usage.

Articulation in Other Fields than Education

The term "articulation" means the act of joining parts, or the condition of being joined or jointed. In botany we say the leaf of a plant is articulated with the stem. In anatomy we say that bones are articulated at a joint. In phonetics we say that organs and their movements are adjusted for the articulation of sounds. In each case, we have distinguishable parts; the parts are somehow connected within the whole (plant, bone structure, or other whole); and the term "articulation" is applied either to the point of connection or the process of connecting the parts.

Bone articulation is considered poor if after an injury the bones do not connect as smoothly and function as well as before. Articulation is considered good if the joint functions smoothly and efficiently. The application of the adjectives "good" and "poor" is similar in other cases of articulation. If the parts do not connect at all, we have "lack of articulation" or "inarticulation."

Articulation in Education

The term "articulation" has usually been defined in the literature of professional education in terms of the relationships among various elements of the school program and in terms of the interdependence of the several parts of that program. Attention has usually been focused upon the various elements to be related. We find discussions of articulation of curriculum offerings with extracurricular activities; of the instructional program with the guidance program; of the school's program with the educational programs of other community institutions and agencies; or articulation of the various levels of the educational system with one another, such as the elementary school and the junior high school.

The term "articulation" has most frequently been used in the vertical sense, the "joints" being the points of transition from a lower school unit to a higher one: elementary school to junior high school, junior high school to senior high school, or secondary school to college. Articulation is considered a problem when transition is not smooth, when the student faces barriers to a smooth and successful transition from the lower to the next higher level of education. Successive units of the educational structure are said to be well articulated when the parts are related to one another within a well-organized whole, when the

various school levels are seen and are operated as interdependent parts of an ongoing and unified process of education.

In recent years the term "articulation" has been applied increasingly to so-called "horizontal" relationships also. Children's school experiences may be "out of joint" because of poorly articulated situations not directly related to progress from lower to higher school grades or levels. When boys and girls move from one community to another, they often have serious problems of adjustment. As they move from one teacher's room to another teacher's room in the same building on the same day, they often face problems of "making the connection" between what happens in one room and in the other. Or the learnings in one curriculum area, e.g., social studies, may seem to be unrelated or even contradictory to learnings in another curriculum area, e.g., natural science. Such problems are not new, although the application of the term "articulation" to these types of situations may be new to some people.

There may well be merit in distinguishing vertical articulation from horizontal articulation, if for no other reason than to recognize a wider range of situations in which articulation is worthy of attention. Once that recognition occurs, however, the question may well be raised: Is the distinction between vertical and horizontal articulation crucial? Are the basic causes of articulation problems different in the two cases? Are the fundamental causes of good articulation in vertical sequences of experience different from those which apply in horizontal sequences?

The answer hinges upon our focus of attention. If we focus our attention upon the *elements* of school organization, curriculum or program of activities to be articulated, the distinction between vertical and horizontal articulation is rather important even though it may not be crucial. If, on the other hand, we focus attention on the *process* of articulation, the distinction between vertical and horizontal relationship is much less important; in this case the various elements of school organization, procedures or curriculum content become articulated, not on paper or in the thought of those who sit apart and plan for articulation, but in the experience of the boys and girls who meet school organization, procedures, and curriculum content as parts of situations in which they live. Within a person's ongoing existence the sequence of experiences is neither vertical nor horizontal. This experience comes after that one; that experience prepares a person for this one. To the learner, the crucial sequence is the sequence of living his individual life.

Because in this yearbook the committee wishes to focus the reader's attention on learners as they experience smooth articulation or on problems of articulation, no effort will be made to limit the discussion to examples of either vertical or horizontal articulation. In a further attempt

to focus attention upon the process of articulation as it occurs in the learner's everyday living, another term will be frequently used, along with that of "articulation." That term is "continuity of learning experience."

Continuity of Learning Experience

"Continuity of learning experience" may indicate a clearer emphasis upon what is happening to the learner than does the term "articulation" as the latter has commonly been used. As already stated, discussions of articulation are too frequently, though not necessarily, devoted to the externals of school organization and curriculum planning. The fundamental test of efforts at improving articulation in schools is found in what happens to the learners in those schools. *Our aim is to further continuity of learning experience toward educational objectives.* We seek to give boys and girls in the schools those learning experiences which will help them achieve their own and the school's objectives in the most efficient manner possible. At times this involves prevention or removal of barriers to pupil progress in the course of being educated.

The term "continuity of learning experience" stresses the ongoing learning process rather than formal administrative structure or even sequences of curricular activities. The emphasis is placed less upon how the school is organized into grades and levels, less upon what learning activities are prescribed at various levels, and more upon what happens to the learner as he goes from level to level or as he reacts to the various learning activities. After all, what happens to school learners collectively represents the sum total of the school's accomplishments, good or bad.

Further, the expression "continuity of learning experience" allows for horizontal as well as vertical sequences within experience, but necessitates no distinction between them.

The taxi driver was concerned about what was happening to his son in the fifth grade and about the future consequences of the boy's experiences there and then. The father may not have ever considered the term "educational objectives," but he obviously held some educational objectives for his sons. The school and the father were both concerned about the boy's intellectual development; but the father feared that the school's way of dealing with lack of intellectual challenge would interfere with another objective he held for his son, learning "to get along with the other kids." One might also question whether the school's "pass him along" solution would really promote the child's best intellectual progress. If this boy's progress toward realistic and desirable all-round development were to be realized, it was and is extremely important that in the fifth grade and every other grade he should have opportunities to develop his present abilities in the direction of his individ-

ual capacities. His intellectual development, his social development, his physical development and his emotional development should proceed in such a way that each would contribute to the others. The school must take some responsibility along all these lines of development.

Scope of the Yearbook

The choice of the subject of the present yearbook indicates a recognition that problems of articulation or inarticulation do exist in our schools and that they are serious enough to warrant careful study. It indicates also that improvements in articulation are possible. We do have unsolved problems in this area. Children in our schools do face unnecessary problems of adjustment as they move from one school unit to the next. They do face other unnecessary and undesirable barriers to learning in numerous other school situations. They face these problems because the adults of past and present generations have not provided for educational continuity. In fact, the frustrations felt by the children in the face of interruptions in their learning progress are often accompanied by very real frustrations for their teachers and parents as well.

The scope of the 1958 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development may be defined briefly as including:

1. An exploration of the present situation with respect to articulation and learning continuity as viewed by children from kindergarten through the senior high school.
2. An exploration of some fundamental considerations upon which better articulation and continuity of learning can be based.
3. An exploration of a few selected current efforts at solving articulation problems in schools, with some critical evaluation of those efforts in the light of the proposed fundamental considerations.
4. An annotated bibliography to guide the reader in an exploration of current literature on the subject of articulation.

Each of the above points is represented by a separate part or division of this publication. Each division has an introductory chapter which gives a preview of that part of the yearbook.

What the Yearbook Does Not Claim To Do

The scope of the yearbook has been described above. The committee members realize that none of the four sections of the book is a complete treatise on its assigned topic. Many limitations will be obvious to the reader—limitations of time and space, as well as limitations of available data. The committee members view this yearbook as merely an introductory and exploratory treatment of a subject needing much study, research and evaluation.

Certain other limitations have been placed on the present publication. For instance, the committee decided at the beginning of its work to limit the yearbook to a consideration of articulation problems from the kindergarten through the senior high school, omitting entirely the consideration of articulation between secondary schools and colleges. This omission is in no sense meant to minimize the seriousness of the problem at that level of education, but represents rather a recognition of the practical necessity to limit the scope of the project. An effort has also been made throughout the yearbook to avoid the presentation or prescription of articulation "cures." The committee takes the position that the specific procedures which will work in any given situation depend upon so many varying factors in each case that it would hardly be safe to suggest ready-made solutions. A real effort has been made throughout not to claim to have found "the answer" or even "the answers." If the yearbook succeeds in locating some of the problems and in indicating some promising approaches to their removal, the committee members will be satisfied, knowing that so complex a problem cannot be solved by any one committee or fully developed in any one yearbook.

Literally thousands of people have contributed to the development of this yearbook. The services of some of them are acknowledged all too briefly by a listing of their names under "Acknowledgments." These people were mentioned by various committee members as having made some special effort to help them, either in gathering material for the book, in analysis of research data, or in preparation of the manuscript. It is impossible to list all those who helped in administering questionnaires or in answering them, but their help was essential to the final result.

Members of the full yearbook committee have worked hard in determining the over-all working procedures, in evaluating and revising those procedures from time to time, and in making helpful criticisms of the manuscript in its first draft. The members of the writing committee decided not to specify the author or authors of each chapter since each has received so much help from others in the group.

The committee also recognizes the assistance of all persons mentioned by Dr. Koopman in his statement "From the Association."

ESTHER J. SWENSON, *Chairman*
Committee for the 1958 Yearbook

Part One

Through Children's Eyes

Exploring Children's Views

THE BABY is obviously ill. He has a high temperature. His face is flushed. He tosses about in his bed. Now and then he cries out as though in pain. His mother is distressed. She waits impatiently for the doctor to come. She says, "If he could only talk! I wish he could tell me where the pain is."

When the doctor comes, he has the advantage of his wider knowledge to guide him in his diagnosis of the child's ailment. Even he, however, may wish at times that the child could tell him "where it hurts." Certainly, the doctor dealing with older patients gets what information he can from them. He asks where the pain or discomfort is felt. He asks when it occurs. He asks how long it lasts. He asks if the patient has noticed recurrence of the ailment under any certain circumstances.

This is not a matter of asking the patient to diagnose his own illness. The doctor uses the various scientific methods of gathering information, but along with them he can use to good effect the information which can be supplied only by the patient. The patient's report may not always be accurate. The doctor knows this and uses it accordingly. Even then the patient's reactions as he reports them to the physician may have a bearing on the final diagnosis. How the patient reacts to his own illness is important to him and to anyone who tries to help him.

When teachers and school administrators seek to do something about articulation problems, they, too, had better seek along with other information that which can be supplied by the "patient." Children's reports of the problems they face with respect to uneven or interrupted continuity of learning experience may not always be accurate. When the reports are accurate, they yield much information as to the seat of the trouble. Even when the reports are not strictly accurate, they may yield significant information leading to more accurate diagnosis of the

difficulty. Children of whatever age or level of maturity act, after all, in terms of life as they see it. They may misinterpret the behavior of other people; they may misinterpret school regulations; they may remember these misinterpretations along with their recall of certain facts. Still, this recollection of what happened is important for it is one basis of the child's later behavior. He acts on the basis of his past experiences as they look to him, not on the basis of how they look to someone else who might have interpreted them more accurately than he did.

Admittedly, the patient's report of his illness or the child's report of his school experiences is only one type of evidence. It needs to be supported or modified or even refuted by a combination of other carefully examined data. But it is one important source of information—in too many school situations, a sadly neglected source.

Purpose of the Study

The yearbook committee members wanted to know what school children could tell them about factors which had helped or hindered their steady progress up the educational ladder during the 12 or 13 years of schooling preceding graduation from high school. In spite of certain very real limitations in children's reports of their own past experiences, the committee members felt that they would better understand articulation and inarticulation in schools if they could have the advantage of looking at continuity of learning experience through children's eyes. For that reason they set up a research study of children's experiences bearing on articulation. That study is reported in Part One of this yearbook, with additional detail being supplied in Appendixes A and B.

Gathering the Children's Reports

The members of the yearbook committee represented a wide geographic distribution throughout the nation—from California to New York, from Oregon to Florida, from Minnesota to Texas. They decided to gather information from school children in the different states represented on the committee. An attempt was made to get material from children all the way from kindergarten through senior high school, from rural and urban schools, and from school systems varying in administrative organization, such as 6-3-3, 8-4, or K-12.

A simple interview guide was worked out by the committee to give a structure to children's reports in a group interview situation. Committee members or their representatives talked with groups of children about experiences which had helped or hindered them in their progress through school. Then they asked the individual children in the group to answer these simple questions on a mimeographed guide sheet:

1. Tell about anything that has happened to you which has helped you to feel that your progress was smooth and that the school helped you move along without unnecessary difficulty.
2. Tell about anything that has happened to you which has made it difficult for you to move along smoothly through school.
3. Tell about any experience that has been very pleasant or very unpleasant and which grew out of this question of your progress through school. It may have happened quite a while ago or lately. Write as much as you can remember about it; tell how it made you feel at the time it happened and how you feel about it now.
4. If you have moved from one school to another, tell about how you felt about moving, before and after you moved. Do you feel the same way now?

Analysis of Children's Reports

Reports were completed by more than 3000 school children in 11 states. Of these, 2974 were usable. Many of the reports told of more than one event or situation, so that well over 4000 situations were included in the subsequent analysis. (See Table 1 of Appendix B for more detail on sources of children's reports.)

The children's reports were carefully studied by a group of 13 teachers (the chairman of the yearbook committee and 12 experienced teachers enrolled in advanced graduate study at the University of Alabama). Each report was studied in its totality rather than in relation to the four questions from the interview guide. The material in each report was transferred to a data sheet, one data sheet being used for each distinct situation or event reported.

Findings were summarized in tables and graphs to provide at least partial answers to various questions in the minds of the investigators. These findings are presented in the next four chapters of the yearbook.

Chapter 2 presents an analysis of the student reports in terms of the types of situations in which children recognized examples of good or poor articulation. It attempts to answer the question: When and where do children notice continuity?

Chapter 3 presents the findings in relation to other persons mentioned by the children as having been involved in the situations where the child had felt either helped or hindered in his school progress. The question to be answered in that chapter is: How do children see other people in relation to continuity?

Chapter 4 gives an analysis of student reports in terms of the positive or negative tone of the replies. This chapter attempts to answer the question: How do children react to continuity situations?

Chapter 5 analyzes the student reports in terms of stated or implied

causes of children's reactions. The question to which the analysis is directed is: What do children see as the causes of their reactions to continuity situations?

In all these chapters (2-5) the data are presented by the school level (primary, intermediate, junior high school, and senior high school) of the child at the time of the event or situation being reported. Analysis in Chapters 3-5 is also done in terms of the particular types of situations.

Limitations of the Research Data

So large a portion of this yearbook would not have been devoted to the articulation experiences reported by school children had not the committee members felt that it is important to see school situations and school problems of any kind through the eyes of the children for whose education the schools operate. Caution must, however, be exercised in the interpretation of the data presented in Chapters 2-5. The reader should bear in mind, as have the investigators, that:

1. The children's reports are only very sketchy descriptions of what actually happened in each case.
2. In telling of their experiences, the children may not have chosen well the pertinent items to report as having a bearing on articulation.
3. The reports are based on memory of past events, which may or may not have been reported as they actually transpired. Errors of recall may have lessened the accuracy of reports.
4. The analysis procedure involved interpretation by the research team in classifying the material. Comparatively "free" reports were reduced to a more or less objective set of data, the "facts of the case" being subject to possible misinterpretation in the process.

An Exploration

Each of the major sections of this yearbook is an exploration into the successes and failures of schools in providing well-articulated learning experiences for boys and girls. The particular exploration which is the task of Part One is an inquiry into the thinking of 3000 American school children as to their views concerning helps or hindrances to their progress in acquiring a worth-while education. If the reader will remember always that this is an inquiry and not a verdict, he should learn a good deal as he looks with the committee through children's eyes.

When and Where Do School Children Notice Continuity?

NEARLY 3000 students were asked to tell about anything that had happened to them which they felt had helped them to make smooth progress through school or which they felt had made it difficult for them to move along smoothly and successfully.¹ They were invited to tell about any particularly pleasant or any particularly unpleasant incidents related to their school progress. The types of situations and events which they reported are presented in this chapter as evidence on the locale of children's experiences that either helped or hindered continuity in their growth and development. The data supplied here will deal not only with the times they felt that their learning experience was blocked or interrupted but also with the times they felt that their learning in school was facilitated.

Both the "where" and the "when" questions by which we seek to localize good and poor articulation in children's school experiences may be at least partially answered by descriptions of types of situations which students tend to recall. Fourteen types of situations recalled by students in this investigation will be defined and illustrated, after which their frequency of mention for children at different school levels will be considered.²

Situations in Which Students Report Good or Poor Articulation

All situations here described were mentioned frequently by school children. This frequency of mention suggests that teachers should pay

¹ The questions which were submitted to the school children are quoted exactly in Chapter 1. Further detail on research procedures is given in Appendix A.

² Research data for this chapter are provided in Graphs I-VI. Additional detail may be found in Table 2 of Appendix B.

close attention to such situations in seeking to improve continuity of children's learning in school. Some of the situations which follow have obvious implications for articulation. Other situations might never have occurred to the investigators if children had not mentioned them frequently when reporting on what helped or hindered their progress through school.

This yearbook is devoted not only to problems or difficulties of articulation but also to what makes for prevention and for solution of such problems. Both the positive and negative sides of the articulation situations are apparent in the children's quotations used below to illustrate each type of situation.³

Moving to a New Community

In reporting this type of situation, the child tells of moving to a new school for some other reason than being promoted to the next higher grade or school level. This transfer may come at the end of a school year or during the year, but the conclusion of a school term is not the reason for moving to a different school. Usually this situation comes about because the family changes its residence. (Chapter 11 discusses this type of situation in detail.)

Illustrative Quotations: "Before I went to another school I was thinking how wonderful it was to get away from the old one. When I got there I felt so strange and awful. I was lonesome and scared. Afterwhile I felt better."

"I have attended six schools and I feel I have never had any troubles changing."

"The thing that has bothered me in school is the fact that my parents moved very often from town to town and state to state."

Moving to a New School Level

In this situation the pupil moves to a new school because he has been promoted to the next higher administrative division of the school, such as going from elementary school to junior high school. This category does not include promotion from grade to grade unless a change to another unit of the school system is involved. "Level" here does not mean "grade" but a more inclusive administrative unit, usually including three or more grades. (Chapter 12 deals with attempts to facilitate the transition to higher levels.)

Illustrative Quotations: "I think the change from elementary to junior high was very good because I like the change from one teacher to many."

"The most . . . difficulties of moving from grade to grade, is the changing

³ In several of the children's quotations throughout this book spelling errors have been corrected.

of subjects, number of classes and number of teachers. But the hardest was after going into senior high school and the change of marks or grading, the tests which were all of a sudden thrown upon us, like mid-year and final examinations."

"All at once you were expected to be grown up in the seventh grade. The teacher in the seventh grade expected too much."

Promotion

This term is used to apply to advancement from grade to grade within a given school unit such as the elementary school or the junior high school. It does not apply to the advancing of a pupil to the next higher administrative unit, such as in moving from junior to senior high school. It includes "special promotions" ("skipping a grade") as long as they do not put the child in a different school.

Illustrative Quotations: They put me in the second grade when I was in the first and had no idea at all what they were doing. I blame the teacher to this day."

"I was afraid I wouldn't pass the fifth grade, but I did."

Retention

In retention situations the pupil has to repeat a grade or subject in school.

Illustrative Quotations: "Over at the other school I failed in first grade. Some kids laugh at me."

"When I was in the second grade I got sick. . . . I didn't pass. I was unhappy and they helped me by explaining to me why I didn't pass. I took the grade over again and then everything was all right."

Quotation Illustrating Both Promotion and Retention: "At first it was rough on me clear up to the third grade, and then I had to stay back. But in the fourth grade I did pretty good because the teacher was kind and nice and I liked him and the fifth grade was the same. The sixth grade is rough. I think I do not like the teacher very much."

Teacher Behavior

Situations reported under the category of "teacher behavior" are those for which the student's report centers around something the teacher does or says or the way the teacher acts. For instance, the teacher makes a particular remark to or about the pupil, the teacher slaps a child, the teacher pays for a child's school lunch, or the teacher "is helpful" with the child's school work or "acts impatient" when the child is slow in performing a task.

Illustrative Quotations: "The teacher said, 'Why all of you ought to be ashamed, Polly is only six and she can spell it.' This embarrassed me and

I found myself not wanting to progress to the point of being embarrassed in front of my friends."

"The best school I ever went to was C——, probably because the teacher I had was nice. She explained things so it wasn't difficult to understand."

"The teacher won't help you at all. Thanks to her I flunked reading. The math teacher comes and stares over your shoulder and scares you so that chills go up and down you."

"One time when I was lying on the teeter-totter Miss X took a ruler and hit me real hard for doing that. I don't think it's right when I didn't know that rule. I think it's not right to be so quick."

Differences in Teaching Methods

This term applies either when a later teacher uses different methods from those used by former teachers or when the student has, at the same time, teachers who use quite different procedures.

Illustrative Quotations: "One thing that has made it more difficult is having to move from one school to another. Maybe one teacher would teach one way and the next just the opposite."

"When I was in the fifth grade we moved and I remember we had just started some arithmetic but at the new school they had already had it and the teacher didn't teach me the same way. I lost valuable instruction."

"After I completed junior high in S—— I moved to C——. There the homework assignments were much heavier than I was used to. When I moved back to S——, the homework assignments was so much easier that I now have a tremendous amount of free time."

Subject Matter

The "subject matter" classification centers upon content studied in school. For example, the pupil tells of difficulties he had with arithmetic assignments in a certain grade or he comments favorably on the interesting content of his work in junior high school science.

Illustrative Quotations: "In the fourth grade I was fouled up in my spelling. They gave me a third grade speller and I was a year behind in my spelling. When I went to the seventh grade, they gave a seventh grade speller. So I never got the sixth grade speller."

"While I was at D—— in the third grade I didn't catch on to the division. Then when I came to the fourth grade I didn't know how to do division. I went through a quarter of the fourth not knowing how to do division. One day my mother saw my back division pages. That day she taught me to do division. Now division is my best subject."

"Things that have made it easier for me in this school are firm things like home economics. It helps me with things I need and it helps me get a passing grade."

Smooth Progress

The situation is classified as "smooth progress" when the pupil's comments indicate that he feels his progress through school has been satisfactory, with no particular mention of specific events which contributed to that progress.

Illustrative Quotations: "Whenever I go into a new room and do not know the kids they always make friends with me and help me along with my work. Nothing has happened to make it difficult for me to move along."

"I have gone through the grades without any real trouble. Nothing has prevented me from going through the grades smoothly."

Extracurricular Activities

This description applies when the student mentions situations or events centering around athletics, school clubs, entertainments, or any other school-related activity not considered part of the regular school program.

Illustrative Quotations: "I didn't like the idea of changing schools my junior and senior year but because of playing football, I was well received and I didn't mind the change at all."

"Just the other day something pleasant happened to me. My counselor called me into her office and asked me if I would like to run for any Associated Student Body office. Everything happened so fast that before I knew it I had 100 signatures and my name was on the list for secretary. We vote next week so I am anxiously waiting for the results. It gives you quite a bit of experience whether you win or not."

Rewards

Situations are classified under "rewards" when a child tells of receiving an honor or special recognition in connection with school experiences.

Illustrative Quotations: "Once in the eighth grade I tied for the first place in a physical education point derby. That is, over the year three other boys and myself got more points for participation and ability than anyone else. We had our names put on a plaque and put in the school trophy case. I still get a tingle when I think about it."

"One experience which I have had at this school was being in the Honor Society a year or so ago. It had made me do my best work later."

Punishments

The student tells about a situation in which he was punished in school by a teacher, the school principal, or someone else at school, or in which he was punished at home for something that happened at school.

Illustrative Quotations: "The teacher went too fast and then we had to write an important note. I told someone what a word was and the teacher caught me talking and put me behind the piano. I couldn't write the note and I didn't know anything the next day so I got a bad grade."

"... the teacher lowered my grade which I think was unfair. She objected to red ink."

Grading

The student reports an incident which focuses upon school "marks" or grades, including grades on tests, report cards, or daily assignments.

Illustrative Quotations: "Well, last year when I got my report card, it was really good and it made me try a lot harder."

"An unpleasant experience for me when I get bad grades on math papers and students correct them. I think the teachers should correct the papers so the children do not know other children's grades."

"My grandparents and my parents have expected me to have good grades in school. From this I have had worry about being able to bring home a good report card. From this I have had much difficulty in school."

Illness

Illness situations used in this study are only those which seem to have affected the child's school progress, e.g., because of the effects of absence from school or because of reactions of other persons to him when he returned to school after the illness.

Illustrative Quotations: "It was in December when I was operated on, and I was worried about my school work. They sent a home teacher to my house. It helped some."

"I had an operation and it was very hard on me because I had so much work to catch up. I couldn't do it all in such a short time and I went down in my work."

"I went to school for two weeks and got sick with a severe sickness. I was in the hospital for three weeks and at home in bed for nine months. The school did everything they could to help."

Accidents

As with "illness," the "accidents" category is used only when the student tells about an accident which has affected his school progress. The accident may or may not have occurred in school.

Illustrative Quotations: "When I had my collar bone broken I lost time at school and it made me feel very unpleasant."

"Being hit in the eye by a piece of chalk and almost losing the eye. I still think it was the teacher's fault because he wasn't paying attention to anything that went on in the classroom."

Relative Emphasis on Various Articulation Situations

The fact that the types of situations described in the preceding section of this chapter *grew out of* the students' replies rather than having been suggested to the respondents is most important. These are the situations and events which the pupils remembered and chose to report when they were asked to tell about happenings which had helped or hindered them in progress through school. The only exception to this "no suggestion" approach was this question: "If you have moved from one school to another, tell about how you felt about moving, before and after you moved." Notice that this question does not specify any particular case of "moving from school to school"; actually, it would include equally well either the situation described above as "moving to a new school community" or the one called "moving to a new school level."

Many students reported more than one situation or event; that is why Graph I is based on 4197 situations even though there were only 2974 student reports. Sometimes the student told of more than one distinct happening; sometimes the same general event might be classified in more than one way, e.g., as "teacher behavior" and "punishment." In either case, the replies were classified under the separate types of situations.

In what sorts of situations do school children themselves take note of conditions which aid or hinder their steady progress in school learnings? Do elementary and secondary school pupils localize the same articulation problems usually emphasized by teachers and administrators? Sometimes they do; sometimes they do not.

Importance of Moving

Notice that over one-fourth (27.1%) of the total situations mentioned by pupils as being related to smooth progress (Graph I) involved moving to a new school community, while only about one-ninth (11.5%) of the total situations involved moving to a new school level (e. g., elementary school to junior high school or junior high school to senior high school). The professional literature certainly seems to place more emphasis on the latter situation, but evidently these boys and girls feel differently about the matter. The high proportion of attention by students to "moving," totaling nearly two-fifths of all reported situations, may well have been increased by the single question which mentioned moving. The disproportionate emphasis on moving to a new community, however, cannot be explained in that way.

A larger proportion of questionnaires were completed by Califor-

It is difficult to know what allowance to make here for "drop-outs," i.e., pupils who drop out of school before graduation. Obviously, such children did not make reports for this study; all the children interviewed were still in school. If one can assume that more pupils drop out of school on the occasion of transition to the next higher unit of the school system than on the occasion of moving to a new school community, one can also assume that the proportion of cases in the category "moving to a new level" in Graphs I-VI and Table 2 is an underestimate of the true situation. It is impossible to say how great the underestimate is.⁴

One conclusion is fairly safe. Without deciding which of the two situations is *more* crucial as the locus of articulation problems, it is clear that *both* moving to a new school community and moving to the next higher school level are seen by the students as being points of concern.

Importance of Teacher Behavior

Another outstanding fact in Graph I is the large proportion of student responses (18.8%) which mention some aspect of the behavior of one or more teachers as being associated by the students with better or poorer continuity of school learning. Almost one out of every five reported situations included mention of something the teacher did or the way the teacher acted.

Later discussion will indicate the proportions of such reports which are of a positive or negative nature; the point here is that children do attach large significance to the behavior of teachers when they are asked to recall the ups and downs of their progress through school. Some of these recollections (and we must remember that they are recollections) seem to be rather vivid. One is tempted to ask, "How could the child possibly forget?" after reading comments like these:

"The teacher made me write the school rules and then threw them away."

"A few days ago I brought a false spider to school to scare Mrs. F—— (the teacher). I fooled her with it and then showed her it was fake. She laughed about it and pinned it on her back to fool someone else. This made school more pleasant."

If we were to combine with the "teacher behavior" category some of the other types of situations which are closely related to teachers and their methods, the importance of the teacher in this whole area of exploration would be even greater. For instance, we might relate to

⁴ Readers interested in the "drop-out" situation will find several references on that subject in the bibliography, Chapter 18.

teacher behavior such other categories as "differences in teaching methods," "rewards," "punishments," "grading," "promotions," and "retention," in many cases of which some teacher very likely participated. Such a combination of categories would comprise a total of 30.8% of all the reported situations. This is enough to make any teacher sit up and take notice! Any teacher who likes to think of articulation as wholly an administrative problem needs to reconsider the teacher's responsibilities in the matter.

Importance of Subject Matter

The fact that about one-sixth of the pupil-reported situations dealt with subject matter shows rather clearly that to the children in school, articulation is often a curricular problem. One child's feeling of smooth and steady progress may be associated for him with his feeling of success in reading, mathematics, or social studies. Another child may look at one or another school subject as a barrier to advancement or at best, a constant drag on his progress.

Data presented in Chapter 5 on stated or implied causes of student reactions place very heavy emphasis on success or failure in learning subject matter—enough to indicate that children's memory of success or failure in learning curricular content is largely responsible for the emphasis placed on subject matter situations as seen in Graphs I-VI.

Importance of Other Types of Situations

While none of the other types of situations represent as much as 10% of the total incidents reported, careful study of the data in Graphs I-VI and Table 2 (Appendix B) will yield some interesting lines of further inquiry. The very presence or absence of certain types of situations is a matter for serious consideration, since these categories were not set up in advance but were derived from the pupil reports. While frequency of response is emphasized in Graphs I-VI and in the foregoing discussion, further investigation of some of the small-frequency situations might prove very much worth while.

Relative Emphasis on Various Situations at Different School Levels

Comparisons of Graphs II-V (or of different grade level columns in Table 2 of Appendix B) show a good deal of consistency in the relative emphasis on given types of situations from one school level to another, but there are also some interesting variations.

The articulation situations reported by school children were classified according to grade levels as follows: Kindergarten—Grade 3; Grades 4—

6; Grades 7-9; and Grades 10-12. We might refer to these levels as primary grades, intermediate grades, junior high school, and senior high school. The school levels classification was done in terms of the grade level of the child at the time he made the report. For example, if a tenth grade boy reported an incident which occurred when he was in the sixth grade, that incident was classified as belonging to Grades 4-6. Since many reports did not indicate the grade level of the child at the time of the reported situation, it was necessary to have a rather large "unclassified" group, represented by Graph VI.

The distribution of items according to grade levels of occurrence necessarily threw more incidents into the earlier years. For instance, incidents for Grades 4-6 might be reported by children from Grades 4 through 12, while incidents occurring in Grades 10-12 could be reported only by students who had reached the senior high school level. This indicates why we can have 705 primary grade situations or events and only 400 senior high school situations even though only 163 primary grade children made reports as against 639 senior high school students.

Primary Grade Situations

Graph II presents the picture for the kindergarten through the third grade. It includes more situations remembered by older children as having happened to them in the primary grades than it does situations reported by children still in the primary grades. One might argue that reports of incidents recalled after years have intervened are apt to be unreliable; or one might counter that argument by noting that events recalled after years of intervening experience must have impressed the child rather deeply. However, let us proceed to the situations as reported, leaving to the reader his own speculations as to their interpretation.

More than a third of the reported events for Kindergarten-Grade 3 deal with moving to a new school community. In fact, that group of incidents at this school level is larger than the next two categories combined. Reference to Graphs II-V reveals a consistent downward trend in the percentages for moving to a new school community, indicating that the younger the child is, the greater is the importance of this horizontal type of articulation of school experience. It would seem that moving to a new school community may be a more significant event in the lives of younger children than is generally recognized. At any rate, this evidence should at least cause teachers to observe most carefully children's reactions in these situations.

Illnesses and accidents which occur during the primary grade years

Graph II.—Situations in Which Students Reported Help or Hindrance in Their Progress Through School
(Kindergarten through Grade 3)

as the next lowest level). This may well mean that the primary grade children do not recall extracurricular activities, related or unrelated to school progress in general.

Intermediate Grade Situations

The articulation situations reported for children in Grades 4-6 follow a distribution which is very similar to that for the total of all school levels. (See Graph III.) Of course, the 1253 situations reported for this school level include about 30% of the total 4197 situations and would accordingly be more like the total than would a school level with smaller representation in the total.

The deviations from the general pattern stand out. The highest proportion of situations revolving around subject matter is found in the intermediate grades of the elementary school. Further, subject matter situations comprise about one-fourth the total for these grades, about the same proportion as for moving to a new school community. Proper handling of these two types of situations might not solve half of the articulation problems for children in Grades 4-6; but certainly so high a proportion of mention by children is significant. Many elementary school courses of study indicate a rather abrupt increase in emphasis upon subject matter content between the third and fourth grades. Teachers' expectations of fourth grade children may not allow for a gradual enough transition from primary grade expectations. Certainly, fourth grades very often use more textbook-type assignments than do the primary grades; the children have many more reading assignments in social studies, science and other content areas. Whether or not these common practices are related to the frequency of the children's mention of subject matter situations for Grades 4-6 should be studied carefully. We may have here a clue to a curricular cause of inarticulation.

Another deviation of the Grades 4-6 group is in the low proportion of incidents reported for moving to a new level. In this respect, the intermediate grades are like the primary grades. This is to be expected, since most school systems are not organized in such a way as to make a definite break at this point.

Some tendencies toward gradual changes in proportions from younger to older groups have already been pointed out in discussing the primary grade situations. Perhaps the most important of these is the continued emphasis at the intermediate grade level on moving to a new school community as an event which impresses elementary school children. Whether or not the adjustment is successfully made, children recognize it as a situation within which continuity of progress may be affected.

Graph V.—Situations in Which Students Reported Help or Hindrance in Their Progress Through School
(Grade 10 through Grade 12)

at lower school levels. The proportion of mention for Grades 10-12 is 8.0%, compared with less than half that percentage for the junior high school and even less for the elementary school children. This represents a combination of differences noted from junior to senior high school teaching and differences among different senior high school teachers, as suggested in this student comment: "When I came to the senior high from the junior high there wasn't too much difference but this year has been really different. It seems real difficult because of all the different new teachers . . . and their methods."

Comments about grading as affecting progress, while not accounting for high proportions at any level, do seem to be more frequent both in junior and senior high school than in the elementary school.

Chapter Summary

To summarize, about 3000 school children in widely distributed areas of the United States were asked to report on the situations which they felt had helped or hindered them in their smooth progress through school. Since this study is an exploratory one which allowed great freedom of response, additional research of a more definitive type is needed. Results of the present investigation include some findings concerning the "locale" of articulation or continuity problems and solutions, as seen through the eyes of school children. Though the findings are by no means conclusive, they may well serve as guideposts for further research—action research by school systems as well as more carefully controlled research studies by research experts. These findings will give future "searchers after continuity" some clues as to "where to look" for articulation problems and solutions.

Continuity from Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

Over-all results from studying 4197 situations reported in 2974 student reports would seem to emphasize the following answers to the question: When and where do school children recognize aids or barriers to steady progress?

1. When moving to a new school community
2. When faced with certain types of teacher behavior
3. When dealing with school subject matter
4. When moving to a new school level.

These four types of continuity situations account for nearly three-fourths of the total situations mentioned by students, the exact percentages for the four being, respectively, 27.1%, 18.8%, 16.0%, and 11.5%.

The types of situations for which the proportionate emphasis is rather consistent from one school level to another are those for teacher behavior, smooth progress, and rewards. Insofar as frequency of mention has significance, it seems that these situations are about equally important at all school levels.

Continuity at Different School Levels

Though responses at different school levels were more alike than different, certain differences were apparent—either differences in order of importance or differences in degree of importance attached to certain situations. Some of these differences, along with similarities, are summarized here. The percent following any item indicates its frequency among the total situations reported for the particular school level.

KINDERGARTEN THROUGH GRADE 3

1. Moving to a new school community (35.5%). (This is a higher proportion than for any other school level.)
2. Subject matter (16.5%)
3. Teacher behavior (14.3%)
4. Illnesses, accidents, retention, and punishments. (While the proportions of these are relatively small in the total picture, they seemed more important for primary grade children than for older children.)

GRADES 4 THROUGH 6

1. Moving to a new school community (25.5%)
2. Subject matter (24.1%). (This is the highest proportion of subject matter situations for any school level, approximately as high as for moving to a new school community. Its possible relation to curriculum changes from the primary to the intermediate grades should be investigated.)
3. Teacher behavior (18.4%).

GRADES 7 THROUGH 9

1. Moving to a new school level (33.8%). (This is more than double the proportion of mentions for the senior high school, indicating the importance of transfer from elementary to junior high school.)
2. Moving to a new school community (19.0%). (This proportion fits with the tendency for this situation to seem less important to children as they grow older.)
3. Teacher behavior (14.8%)
4. Subject matter (11.2%)
5. General agreement of junior and senior high school proportions in importance attached to most types of situations.

GRADES 10 THROUGH 12

1. Teacher behavior (21.2%). (This is the only school level at which the behavior of teachers ranked first in proportion of mentions.)
2. Moving to a new school level (16.7%). (Transition from the junior

high school to the senior high school is indicated as an important "site" of articulation considerations, but not nearly as important as the transition from elementary school to junior high school.)

3. Moving to a new school community (15.5%). (This is the lowest proportion for any school level, but still important.)

4. Extracurricular activities (9.5%). (Senior high school students tend to mention extracurricular activities more frequently than do students at other levels; the relation is usually one of facilitating progress.)

5. Differences in teaching methods (8.0%). (A tendency for method differences to be noted by students increases from earlier to later grades, with the highest proportion at the senior high school level.)

How Do Other People Influence Continuity for Children?

WHEN SCHOOL children were asked in this study to tell about anything that had happened to them that helped or hindered their steady progress in school, no questions were asked about other people who may have been involved in those happenings. Even a casual reading of the students' reports, however, will impress the reader with the frequency of personal references. For example, the emphasis on teacher behavior which was reported in the preceding chapter indicates how frequently students viewed teachers' actions as promoting or interfering with the continuity of pupil learning experiences.

Careful consideration of the children's reports suggests very clearly that human relations often play a large part in articulation problems, either by actually creating the problem or by contributing to the problem. Human relations also seem to play a large part in the prevention and removal of articulation problems. Because the students chose to talk so much about other people who were involved in school continuity as they saw it, the personal references in their reports were studied for frequency of mention of one or more persons and for identity of those persons. Consideration of these facts should suggest other studies which might be made of human relations factors in school articulation.

Mention of One or More Persons

The following analysis deals with voluntary, unsolicited mentions of other persons by school children. The findings might be quite different if direct inquiry had been made about the role of other persons in articulation events.

The proportions in Graphs VII and VIII (and in Tables 3 and 4 of Appendix B) are proportions of reported articulation situations in

which personal references were made. "No other person mentioned" does not mean that no other persons than the student were involved; it means that no other persons were *specifically mentioned* by the student in reporting the happening.

In Graph VII we see that for the total group (bottom section of graph) children mentioned one or more other persons in about two-thirds of their accounts. On this basis we might say that the chances of involvement of another person are 2 to 1 for the 4197 reported cases of situations in which continuity of learning experience was helped or hindered. Actually the chances of such involvement would be *more* than 2 to 1 if children had been *asked* to mention other persons who were involved. For example, a student wrote: "I have always hated school and I never knew from one day to the next where I would be going to school." This statement does not *mention* any other person or persons as being involved, but relations with other people may have been significant features of the situation this tenth grade student was reporting. The "No other person mentioned" sections of Graphs VII and VIII are probably overestimates, while the other two sections probably represent underestimates.

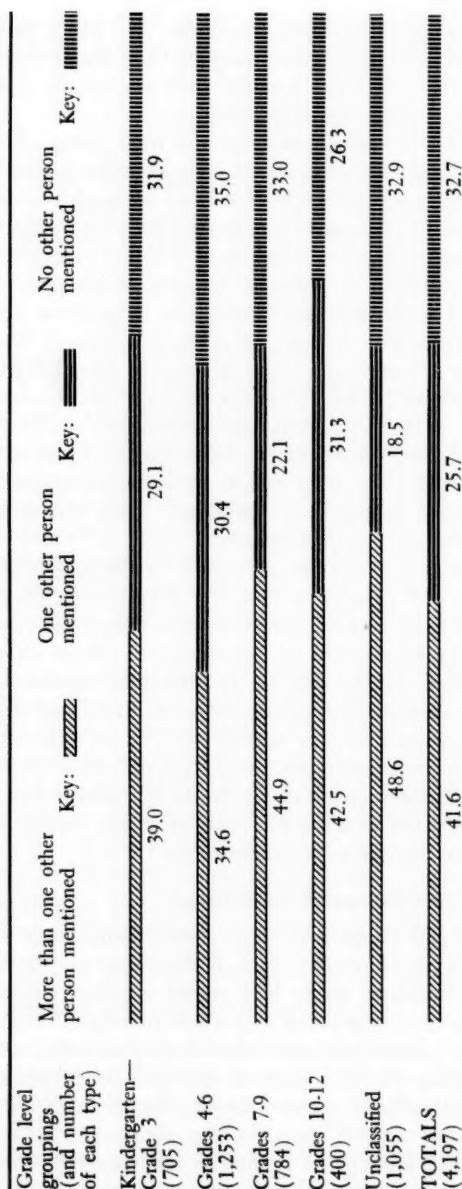
More often than not, the children's mentions of other people include more than one person. In fact, for some groups plural references are more than twice as frequent as singular references.

The large proportions of situations for which children mentioned other persons should not be surprising in school situations, which necessarily involve other persons than the individual child who is telling about his experiences in school. This is nevertheless a fact which teachers and administrators should ponder when they are tempted to solve articulation problems in terms of administrative diagrams or pencil and paper revisions of school structure. Articulation is a human relations matter; let us remember this.

Mentions at Different School Levels

The facts of Graph VII show general consistency from school level to school level. Differences such as these may not be very reliable; only about one-fourth of senior high school incidents included mentions of no other persons, compared with about one-third for other school levels; junior high school incidents included mentions of a single other person less frequently than did incidents for other levels; and junior and senior high school incidents showed larger proportions in the "more than one other person" section than did the elementary school incidents. All three of these findings (if verified by further study) might be associated with the importance of their peers (as groups) to adolescents.

Graph VII.—Mentions of Other Persons as Having Been Involved in Student-reported Situations
(Analysis by school levels—in percentages)



Mentions in Different Articulation Situations

In Graph VIII the highest proportion of personal mentions is in the teacher behavior category, as might be expected since the category is one of personal relations between pupils and teachers. One teacher was mentioned more often than teachers-in-general. This fact carries with it some interesting implications as to the responsibilities of individual teachers in helping or hindering children's progress in school. Concerning a single teacher, students made such references as "a teacher who only knew how to throw lessons at you" or "an understanding teacher, a pal who also helped." Concerning teachers-in-general or several teachers, some sample comments by children were: "gobs of substitute teachers," "I had teachers who would cut off their right arm to get people in trouble," or "Women teachers take the side with the girls." True or false, these descriptions are given by students who were asked to tell about experiences which helped or hindered their school progress.

When students reported situations in which they considered their progress smooth and easy, they mentioned other people in about 70% of the cases. One child wrote, "The teacher had something good to say about me always." Another said, "The teacher complimented me on my work."

In the two related categories of moving to a new school community and moving to the next school level approximately 60% of the incidents included mentions of other persons, with a preponderance of attention being given to more than one person. The children seem in either case to have been much concerned with the social aspects of the new school into which they moved. Typical comments about moving which referred to other people were: "The teachers (in the old school) were like my mother and the children like my sisters and brothers." "The English-speaking people did not approve of us." Notice the relatively small number of "one other person" mentions for moving to a new school community, indicating a tendency for children to discuss moving either without mentioning other people at all or mentioning people in general, such as "the other children in the new school."

Approximately 60% of the student reports make references to other persons in two other types of situations, namely, extracurricular activities and subject matter situations. The former category emphasizes mentions of more than one person, usually a group such as "the other students." The subject matter situations tend toward mentions of one other person (usually the teacher, as shown in Graph X).

Nearly half (48%) of the reports citing differences in teaching methods referred to more than one person. As might be expected, these

Graph VIII.—Mentions of Other Persons as Having Been Involved in Student-reported Situations
(Analysis by types of situations—in percentages)

Types of situa- tions and number of each type	More than one other person mentioned	One other person mentioned	No other person mentioned
Moving to new school com- munity (1,139)	53.8	5.1	41.1
Teacher behavior (787)	41.8		58.2
Subject matter (674)	23.0	36.9	40.1
Moving to next school level (484)	46.9	14.5	38.6
Smooth progress (231)	51.1	19.0	29.9
Extracurricular activities (216)	48.6	11.1	40.3
Differences in teaching methods (109)	47.7	24.8	27.5

Illness (102)	19.6	20.6	59.8
Rewards (98)	32.7	9.2	58.1
Punishments (98)	27.6	56.1	16.3
Promotion (84)	38.1	20.2	41.7
Grading (61)	19.7	26.2	54.1
Retention (58)	20.7	27.6	51.7
Accidents (56)	17.9	26.8	55.4
TOTALS (4,197)	41.6	25.7	32.8

were the teachers who used different teaching methods. A typical comment is this one: "In the third grade I had two teachers. I had just gotten used to a very strict teacher and she got married so we had to have another teacher. The first teacher was teaching us times tables. We were supposed to have a test every day on multiplication and every day it was a different set. If we missed any on test, that was just too bad and I didn't learn any multiplication except 2's until fifth grade."

Pupils' descriptions of certain types of events were relatively "impersonal," as is indicated by the higher proportions in the "no other person" section of Graph VIII for illnesses, rewards, grading, retention, and accidents.

Certain of the implications to be derived from the data on rewards and punishments in Graph VIII are intriguing. First of all, the coincidence of an identical number of rewards and punishments situations (98 of each) was interesting; but the personal relationships involved seem to be in contrast rather than similar. Pupils tended to describe the reward situations without mention of other persons (in about 3 out of 5 cases), while descriptions of punishment situations omitted mention of other people in only 1 out of 6 cases. Further, pupil reports associate punishments with a single other person (usually the teacher) 7 times as often as rewards are so associated. While the proportion of rewards and punishments described in relation to more than one person is closer (33% and 28%), rewards have more such mentions. Examination of actual statements made by students seems to indicate that they tended to associate punishments with the person who did the punishing, while they tended to describe rewards more as impersonal events or in relation to the group of which they were a part. It may be that they considered punishments as *private* affairs between themselves and the "punisher" and rewards as more public affairs. Such an interpretation fits with numerous exact quotations which might be cited, such as: "Mrs. —— whipped me for something I didn't do," and "In my freshman year, I was nominated as class favorite. Everybody was very friendly with me and I was invited with all the parties and social functions. It may sound silly but it sure was nice, and I'll always remember it."

Identity of Other Persons Mentioned by Students

The next question is: Who *are* these people mentioned so frequently by the school children in connection with their school progress? The preceding discussion indicates the importance of teachers and of other children; the importance of parents might also be assumed. Graphs IX and X (and Tables 5 and 6 in Appendix B) give some further informa-

Graph IX.—Identity of Other Persons Mentioned as Being Involved in Reported Situations for Children at Different School Levels
(in percentages)

School levels and number of personal mentions	Teachers	Parents	Other children	Others
Kindergarten— Grade 3 (540)	50.7	27.6	18.0	3.7
Grades 4-6 (979)	60.4	11.0	26.7	1.9
Grades 7-9 (618)	50.8	11.1	34.1	4.0
Grades 10-12 (349)	59.9	6.9	27.2	6.0
Unclassified (830)	57.7	7.2	32.2	2.9
TOTAL (3,316)	56.3	12.4	28.0	3.3
Percentage = $\frac{\text{Number of personal mentions of a certain type (Teachers, Parents, Other Children, Others)}}{\text{Total number of personal mentions}}$				

Graph X.—Identity of Other Persons Mentioned as Being Involved in Various Types of Reported Situations (in percentages)

Types of situations and number of personal mentions	Teachers	Parents	Other children	Others
Moving to new school community (810)	24.4	29.0	44.4	2.1
Teacher behavior (907)		86.8		3.1 8.3 1.9
Subject matter (437)		71.2	12.1	13.0 3.7
Moving to next school level (377)	38.2	10.6	45.6	5.6
Smooth progress (197)	53.3		9.6	31.5 5.6
Extracurricular activities (160)	33.8	2.5	61.3	2.5
Teaching methods different (86)		86.0		3.5 9.3 1.2
Illness (47)		48.9	17.0	21.3 12.8

Rewards (42)	30.9	11.9	50.0	7.1
Punishments (98)		72.4	5.1	19.4
Promotion (62)	51.6	3.2	45.2	3.1
Grading (31)		74.2	9.7	12.9
Retention (32)		68.8	6.3	15.6
Accidents (30)	33.3	10.0	36.7	9.4
TOTALS (3,316)	56.3	12.4	28.0	20.0
				3.3

Percentage = $\frac{\text{Number of personal mentions of a certain type (Teachers, Parents, Other Children, Others)}}{\text{Total number of personal mentions}}$

Example: 86.8% for teacher mentions in the Teacher Behavior category means that 86.8% of the personal mentions in such situations were mentions of teachers. Reference to Table 2 of Appendix B will show that there were 787 teacher mentions for 787 teacher behavior situations, as would be necessary. The percentage of 86.8 was derived by dividing 787 by 907, the total number of personal mentions for that category.

tion as to the identity of the people to whom the school children refer.

Graph IX gives the analysis by grade level groups, but first we may well note the final line of that table in which the total distribution among types of persons is given. As we might expect from the nature of the study, teachers head the list as to frequency of mention, making up 56% of all the persons mentioned by pupils as having been associated with articulation events or situations. Other children come next with 28%, parents with 12% and "others" with only 3%.¹ Again one is impressed with the importance of the teacher's role in the whole matter of assisting children to move along smoothly and successfully from one learning experience to another.

The proportions of persons in each category for the different grade levels run rather close to those for the whole group of 3311 personal mentions,² though two slight trends within that pattern are interesting. These "trends" if they may be called that, are seen in the "Parents" and "Other children" columns. Notice that the incidents involving primary grade children mention parents more frequently, even though many of these incidents were reported by older children looking back at their primary grade experiences. There is a sharp drop for parent mentions in senior high school incidents, which may be associated with the increasing independence of children from their parents so far as school experiences are concerned. Note also that the quantitatively expressed position of parents in primary grade incidents (27.6%) is almost exactly that of other children for the whole group (28.0%).

The other "trend" is that for "Other children," beginning in the primary grades with a relatively small proportion (18%) and increasing regularly through the intermediate grades (27%) and junior high school (34%); there is, however, a drop back to about the intermediate grade proportion for senior high school (28%). An interesting similarity of pattern appears for the intermediate grade group and the senior high school group, with the difference for the senior high school group being fewer mentions of parents and more mentions of "other people." The junior high school group differs somewhat from both the group immediately below it and immediately above it in its larger concern with the role of other children in their experiences.

Both of these "trend" discussions are purely speculative, their chief value being in terms of suggestions for further study.

¹ "Others" includes all persons mentioned who are not teachers, parents, or other children. The school nurse, school counselor, and the school principal are examples of individuals who might come in this classification.

² Actually, more than 3311 persons are included, because sometimes the reference is plural, e.g., "my teachers" or "the other boys and girls in my class."

Graph X presents an analysis of the identity of other persons mentioned by students as having been involved in reported incidents, with the analysis being done in terms of types of situations. The main question is, then: In what types of situations does the child mention teachers, parents, other children or "other" people? The totals and the proportions in the bottom line of Graph X are, of course, the same as those in Graph IX, already discussed. They are useful here as a basis of comparison in looking for deviations from the general pattern for certain types of situations. Teachers are in general mentioned more frequently than any other individuals (56% of all personal mentions); but pupils seem to pay most attention to their teachers (in addition to "teacher behavior" situations) when reporting situations in which subject matter or different teaching methods are involved (71% and 86% respectively), or when they (the students) are punished (72%), graded (74%), or retained in the same grade or class (69%). Students bring their parents into the reports in about 12% of their total personal mentions, but highlight the parents' role when the family moves to a new community (29%) or when the child is ill (17%). Compared with a 28% proportion of mentions of other children in all situations, the pupils mention their peers more frequently when they move to a new community (44%), when they move to the next higher unit in the local school system (46%), when extracurricular activities are being reported (61%) or when the reporter has received a reward or a promotion of some kind (51% and 45%, respectively). There is much food for thought in these proportions. These are some clues as to "who is important to the child when."

To lend life to "cold" statistics, here are some quotations from students' reports mentioning different types of "other persons."

Concerning subject matter: "I have a peace of mind about the work. I know my teacher will help me."

Concerning punishment: "Our teacher was a principal and when we do something wrong, we get a spanking."

Concerning retention: "I got discouraged and he failed me which made me have a dislike for school."

Mentioning parents: "When mother told me we were going to move again I didn't feel too bad because I knew how it felt to move."

Mentioning other children: "... was forced to leave friends who will always be a part of me."

Chapter Summary

The data presented in this chapter indicate that the achievement of good articulation of children's school experiences (or the existence of

poor articulation) is frequently a matter of human relations. The school child's personal contacts with teachers, other children, parents or other adults play an important part in helping or hindering his progress through school.

The data analyzed here were derived from a study of unsolicited personal mentions by children. Further research might well seek to explore directly the human relations aspects of articulation. Such an exploration could check some of the present findings on frequency of personal references, such as the following:

1. More than two-thirds of the school children's reports of articulation situations include mentions of other persons even though such mentions were not suggested in any way.

2. More often than not, the students mention more than one person rather than only one.

3. There may be some tendency for high school students to show more concern than elementary school children about other students as groups.

4. All the reports of teacher behavior as it affects pupil progress, of course, include personal references—with more mentions of a single teacher than of more than one.

5. About 70% of the reports refer to other people in the categories of "smooth progress" and "differences in teaching methods."

6. Children seem to be concerned about the social relations aspects of moving, whether it is to a new school community or a new school level; about 60% of their accounts of moving mention other people, usually more than one person.

7. In two other types of situations, approximately 60% of the student reports make references to other persons as having been involved. These are extracurricular activities and subject matter situations. As might be expected, the accounts of extracurricular activities have a heavy emphasis on more than one person, while the subject matter situations tend toward involvement of one other person.

8. Between punishment and reward situations, a contrast appears in frequency of mention of other persons, 84% and 42%, respectively. Emphasis is also placed on the association of one person (the punisher) with punishment situations.

More extensive and thorough future investigation is suggested by findings in the present study concerning the identity of the persons mentioned by students when talking about their progress or lack of progress through school.

1. Teachers, other children, parents and miscellaneous "other persons" are mentioned by students in that order of frequency when they describe helps or hindrances to their school progress. The proportions of mention are: teachers, 56%; other children, 28%; parents, 12%; and "others," 3%.

2. Parents are mentioned most frequently by primary grade children (28%), while the percentage decreases to 7% at the senior high school level.

3. Reference to other children shows a different trend, increasing in frequency of mention from 18% at the primary grade level to 34% at the junior high school, and 27% at the senior high school level.

4. Teachers are mentioned with highest relative frequency in situations involving effects of teacher behavior, subject matter, difference in teaching methods, punishments, grading, and retention in the same grade.

5. School children mention parents most frequently in connection with moving to a new community and in case of illness.

6. Mentions of other children are more frequently referred to by children who move to a new school community or to the next higher unit of the local school system, in connection with extracurricular activities, and in relation to rewards and promotions.

How Do Children React to Continuity Situations?

IN THE exploration of any education problem it is all too easy to fall into a trap of totally negative or totally positive reaction to situations. Such a tendency to act as if "everything is wrong" or as if "everything is right" is almost certain to lead to misinterpretations. Consideration of children's problems in the area of continuity of learning experience is no exception.

The present study showed that 27.1% of the continuity situations mentioned by children could be classified as "moving to a new school community" and that 18.8% of the situations were classified as centering around "teacher behavior." (Graph I, p. 21.) This does not mean that 27% of the child-reported situations suggested *trouble* for the child when he moved to a new school community; nor does it mean that 19% of the child-reported situations suggested that teachers' behavior constituted a *barrier* to pupil progress. Sometimes the child reporter told of difficulty when he moved to a new school; sometimes he told of easy adjustments. Sometimes he reported teacher actions which hindered or which aided his progress.

The data reported up to this point have localized our consideration of articulation situations, good or bad, and have indicated some facts about the involvement of other persons in those situations. The present chapter inquires into the positive and negative reactions of the children to various articulation situations. It answers to some degree the question: *How did the children react* to the various situations they chose to report when they were asked to tell about what had helped or hindered their progress through school?

Positive and Negative Reactions

Whenever the nature of a student's reaction to a given situation was clear, it was classified as positive or negative. Even more specifically, it

was classified (when possible) according to the following lists of adjectives:

Positive Reactions:

Helped, comforted
 Hopeful, encouraged
 Happy
 Successful, confident, competent
 Grateful, appreciative
 Secure, accepted
 Relaxed
 Nonspecific positive

Negative Reactions:

Angry, rebellious, resentful
 Ill-at-ease, embarrassed
 Unhappy, sad
 Incompetent, unsuccessful
 Frustrated
 Strange, shy
 Defeated, hopeless
 Worried, anxious
 Neglected, rejected
 Afraid, self-conscious
 Nonspecific negative

As the preceding lists indicate, adjectives with closely related meanings have been grouped together. While the different shadings of meaning were recognized, no attempt was made to distinguish between those which are grouped together, e.g., "strange" and "shy." If a child's reaction applied to more than one of the given categories, it was recorded for more than one. Classification of all data in this study grew out of examination of student responses; the greater length of the negative list just given is a result of finding a wider variety of types of negative responses in student reports.

A simple classification of positive and negative reactions by students is shown in Graphs XI and XII. Analysis of the more specific types of reactions will be given later in the chapter.

In all, 4653 student reactions to articulation situations were classified. Of these, 53% were negative contrasted with 47% positive. This nearly even balance of positive and negative reactions to situations suggests that the students really did report on both sides of the articulation question—what had helped them and what had hindered them in their steady progress through school.

At the intermediate grade level, the positive-negative ratio is about 50-50; at the primary grade and junior high school levels, the ratio is about 5 negative reactions to every 4 positive reactions. Only at the senior high school level do the negative reactions outweigh the positive reactions by as much as 6 to 4. (See Graph XI.)

While caution is very definitely in order in the interpretation of these data, the larger proportion of negative reactions at the senior high school level gives rise to some interesting speculation which in turn might well suggest lines of further study. One must remember that the reactions being discussed are to events *which took place* during the senior high school years, not to all the events reported by senior high

Graph XI.—Positive and Negative Reactions to Articulation Situations ^a
Classified by grade levels of students at the time of the situation (in percentages)

Grade levels and number of situations ^b	Percentage of negative reactions	Percentage of positive reactions
Kindergarten—3 (746)	55.6	44.4
Grades 4-6 (1,397)	48.9	51.1
Grades 7-9 (855)	55.4	44.6
Grades 10-12 (470)	60.6	39.4
Ungraded (1,185)	50.9	49.1
TOTALS (4,653)	53.4	46.6

^a See Table 7 of Appendix B for detailed data.

^b The totals in this column do not correspond to totals in Graph I because the students did not indicate their reactions to reported situations in a one-to-one relationship.

school students. The reactions they gave to events occurring earlier in their school careers are classified at earlier levels. Since the senior high school category would include a higher proportion of recent experiences than for other categories, one might consider the possibility of the fading of negative reactions with the passage of intervening time and experience. The present study raises but certainly does not answer the questions: Are negative reactions to senior high school articulation situations likely to be proportionately greater than at earlier school levels? If they are, why is this true? Does the recency of the experiences have any effect on this situation? Are senior high school students more apt to experience, or to notice, hindrances to their smooth progress than they were when they were younger?

The relative emphasis upon negative or positive reactions to articulation situations probably has more significance when studied in relation to particular types of situations than in relation to grade levels of the students doing the reporting. Graph. XII is arranged with higher proportions of positive reactions toward the top and the higher proportions of negative reactions toward the bottom.

Three types of situations indicate high proportions of positive student reactions: rewards, smooth progress, and extracurricular activities. The preponderance of positive student reactions to extracurricular activities as being related to smoothing progress through school is worthy of attention. One is not surprised at the positive emphasis, but the relating of extracurricular activities to better continuity of school progress has perhaps not been considered often in connection with professional discussions of articulation.

The high proportion of positive reaction to situations in which the student received a reward is to be expected; the same is true for situations in which the student described his progress as "smooth" or steady. In fact, one might be surprised to find *any* negative reactions to reports of smooth progress. The 2% of negative reactions to "smooth progress" can be explained in terms of boredom or lack of challenge. For example, a ninth grade boy said, "The eighth grade was too easy which I believe makes me lazy now in the ninth."

Referring to situations at the opposite end of the scale, one might wonder why any child would react positively toward situations involving punishment, accidents, retention or illness. (See bottom section of Graph XII.) The positive reactions in these situations were generally of two types: (a) the child recognized and appreciated the help given by other people in the situation, or (b) the child expressed the idea that what had happened had been good for him. Some quotations may clarify this point:

Graph XII.—Positive and Negative Reactions to Articulation Situations *
Classified by types of situations (in percentages)

Types of situations and number of each	Negative reactions	Positive reactions
Rewards (113)	5.3	94.7
Smooth progress (253)	11.9	88.1
Extracurricular activities (239)	13.8	86.2
Promotion (92)	45.7	54.3
Subject matter (743)	49.3	50.7
Teacher behavior (863)	49.6	50.4
Moving to new level 536)	53.9	46.1

Grading (61)	60.7	39.3
Moving to new community (1,289)	68.1	31.9
Teaching methods differ (130)	70.0	30.0
Illness (109)	81.7	18.3
Retention (58)	84.5	15.5
Accidents (62)	85.5	14.5
Punishments (105)	89.5	10.5
TOTAL (4,653)	53.4	46.6

* See Table 8 of Appendix B for detailed data.

"When I was in the second grade I got sick. I didn't pass. They helped me by explaining to me why I didn't pass. I took the grade over again and everything was all right."

"The teacher has shaken me and it made me very embarrassed and then after awhile I got over it and it didn't embarrass me because the children were so good to me."

Many interesting implications may be drawn concerning students' reactions to certain events which appear closer to the central portion of Graph XII as well as from those at the extremes. Take, for example, the relative proportions of positive and negative reactions to "moving to a new school community" and "moving to a new school level." The literature on problems of school articulation has consistently emphasized the latter; much has been written and said about the difficulties encountered by children when they move from elementary to junior high school or from junior high school to senior high school. Not nearly as much discussion has been devoted to the problems of continuity of children's learning experience as they move from one school community to another. From the child's point of view as revealed in this study, the emphasis is reversed. The proportion of negative reactions to moving to a new school community (68%) is higher than for moving to the next school level (54%). In other words, the difficulties of horizontal articulation seem to impress these children more than the difficulties of vertical articulation, so much emphasized by teachers and school administrators. Children obviously meet difficulty in both situations.

Two of the most evenly balanced items as to positive and negative reactions are the categories of "teacher behavior" and "subject matter." Teachers might be encouraged to note that the children in this study at least struck an even balance between positive and negative reactions to their experiences with teachers and with subject matter. They should not, however, fall into the error of assuming that 50-50 is a "good" proportion. If students had considered their experiences with teachers and subject matter as consistently favorable and helpful to them in promoting continuity of learning experience, they would have given 100% positive and no negative reactions to these situations. Although it is possible that helpful teacher behavior was assumed by many students to such an extent that they did not mention it specifically, "half good and half bad" is really not a very good record. The following types of reactions are natural consequences of the regrettable school incidents which aroused them:

"My most unpleasant experience was in the fourth grade when we were

spelling and every time I missed a word we had to write it so many times during recess. I felt very sore about it then and I still do."

"We were putting on a school play for Christmas and I was one of the Three Wise Men and I didn't want to be in the play but the teacher made me do it. Since then I have been afraid to get up in front of people and classmates."

"I had a teacher who used to shake the children, slam books on desks, and pick on special people. He used to scare me by his actions."

Specific Types of Student Reactions

To find that student reactions to a given type of situation are predominantly positive, predominantly negative or evenly balanced appears to be of some significance. It is natural, however, to want to know more about the specific nature of the positive or negative reactions. The adjectives listed on page 49 suggest the types of reactions included in the two broad classifications (positive and negative) but the question here is: Which of these adjectives most frequently describe children's reactions to the situations they reported as helping or hindering their school progress?

Let us consider first some of the most frequently occurring positive reactions, as interpreted by the investigators from students' comments. When children respond favorably to "moving to a new school community" or to other situations, what types of responses are most frequent?

The first section of the following summary may be read as follows: Of 411 positive reactions to moving to a new school community, the most frequent ones were: 134 "happy" reactions; 89 "generalized positive" ones; and 65 expressions of feeling "helped."¹

<i>Moving to a new school community</i> —411	<i>Smooth progress</i> —223
Happy—134	Helped—92
Generalized positive—89	Generalized positive—42
Helped—65	Successful or confident—24
<i>Subject matter</i> —377	<i>Rewards</i> —107
Helped—196	Happy—28
Successful or confident—70	Successful or confident—27

¹ Only those types of situations are listed for which there were more than 40 positive reactions; specific types of reactions are listed only if they represent more than 10% of the total positive reactions to the particular type of situation. Hence, the frequencies for particular reactions do not total the number of positive reactions for the type of situation being considered.

The term "generalized positive" is used for reactions which were clearly positive but not specific enough to be classified more clearly than that.

Teacher behavior—435

Helped—212

Appreciative—47

Moving to next school level—247

Happy—59

Helped—48

Successful or confident—46

Secure—39

Generalized positive—34

Extracurricular activities—206

Happy—69

Successful or confident—47

Generalized positive—28

Helped—25

Promotion—50

Happy—11

Generalized positive—9

Successful or confident—8

Encouraged—8

Helped—7

Notice the repeated emphasis above on a few recurring adjectives to describe children's positive reactions to articulation situations. Students felt "helped," "happy," "confident or successful," or gave a general impression of a positive reaction. These four types of reactions comprised 1654 reactions out of a total of 2168 positive reactions, representing a ratio of about 3 out of 4. Certainly we see highlighted here the importance of school children's feeling successful and of their recognition of having been helped by other people.

The negative reactions of children to continuity situations in school seem to be somewhat more diverse than their positive reactions. This is indicated in the following summary² of most frequent reactions:

Moving to a new school

community—878

Unhappy—153

Strange or shy—148

Generalized negative—145

Subject matter—366

Incompetent or unsuccessful—173

Generalized negative—49

Differences in teaching methods—91

Incompetent or unsuccessful—24

Frustrated—18

Generalized negative—18

Punishments—94

Angry or resentful—46

Generalized negative—16

Retention—49

Unhappy—16

Incompetent or unsuccessful—12

Generalized negative—8

Teacher behavior—428

Angry or resentful—144

Generalized negative—64

Incompetent or unsuccessful—49

Moving to next school level—289

Strange or shy—78

Afraid—43

Generalized negative—32

² Only those types of situations are listed for which there were more than 40 negative reactions; specific types of reactions are listed only if they represent more than 10% of the total negative reactions to the particular type of situation. Hence, the frequencies for particular reactions do not total the number of negative reactions for the type of situation being considered.

The term "generalized negative" is used for reactions which were clearly negative but not specific enough to be classified more clearly than that.

<i>Illness</i> —89	<i>Embarrassed</i> —6
Incompetent or unsuccessful—29	
Generalized negative—24	<i>Promotion</i> —42
Worried or anxious—9	Worried or anxious—8
<i>Accidents</i> —53	Generalized negative—6
Generalized negative—21	Strange or shy—5

This summary should be read thus: of 878 negative reactions given by children to moving to a new school community, the most frequent were 153 cases of unhappiness, 148 cases of feeling strange or shy, and 145 cases of a general negative reaction not specific enough to be classified more sharply.

Although the preceding summary is limited to the more frequent responses, it shows the emphasis placed by children on these types of negative reactions: generalized negative reactions not specific enough to be defined, feelings of being incompetent or unsuccessful, angry or resentful, strange or shy, unhappy and worried or anxious. These categories of negative reaction represent 1769 of a total of 2885 negative reactions, or approximately 3 out of 5.

The relation of certain types of reaction to certain types of situations should be investigated further, for example: the association of anger and resentment with some types of teacher behavior and with punishment; feelings of incompetence as reaction to some forms of teacher behavior, to experiences with subject matter, to differences in teaching methods, and to illness; and the expression of feeling shy or strange when moving to a new school community, the next school level, or a higher grade. In the case of moving to the next higher school level, frequent mention of feeling strange or shy is coupled with additional frequent mention of feeling actually afraid. These relationships may give teachers clues to prevention and cure of negative pupil reactions.

Strength of Students' Reactions

Student reactions to continuity situations which they reported were rated as to type and strength along a scale: very favorable, favorable, neutral, unfavorable, very unfavorable. A place was also allowed for mixed reactions. While detailed analysis of these ratings is provided in Tables 9 and 10 in Appendix B, a few of the more interesting findings are discussed here.

In reporting incidents which favored or hindered their steady progress through school, students tended to feel more strongly about situations involving punishment, reward, extracurricular activities, and teacher behavior, as indicated by these proportions:

Punishments: 30% of total reactions extreme, with 24% very unfavorable

Rewards: 28% of total reactions extreme, all very favorable

Extracurricular activities: 24% of total reactions extreme, mostly very favorable

Teacher behavior: 20% of reactions extreme, with very unfavorable reactions slightly outweighing the very favorable.

The highest proportions of strongly unfavorable reactions were found to these situations:

Punishments: 24%

Retention in the same grade: 14.5%

Teacher behavior: 11%

Differences in teaching methods: 9.5%.

The highest proportions of very favorable reactions were to the following types of situations:

Rewards: 28%

Extracurricular activities: 22%

Generally smooth progress: 14%

Promotion: 12%.

While the classification of reactions according to type and strength necessarily involved more interpretation on the part of the investigators than was necessary in some other phases of the study, teachers may find in the results some clues as to the kind of reactions to expect from students in certain situations and as to how intense students' feelings may be about elements in these situations. That is perhaps the chief contribution of this analysis.

Chapter Summary

In reporting incidents or situations in which they felt they had been helped or hindered in school progress, pupils often stated directly, or implied, their own reactions to these situations or incidents. Positive and negative reactions to reported articulation situations are rather evenly balanced in this study (47% positive, 53% negative). This is significant to readers of this research report because it indicates pupils' recognition of *aids* as well as *barriers* to progress in school.

Careful analysis of the student reports furnishes some findings which merit further study. Those which bear on the positive or negative character of student reactions are these:

1. The ratio of positive and negative reactions is about 50-50 at the intermediate grade level (Grades 4-6). At other school levels, negative reactions are more frequent than positive, in these approximate ratios: primary grades (Kindergarten-Grade 3) and junior high school (Grades

7-9), 4 positive to 5 negative reactions; senior high school (Grades 10-12), 2 positive to 3 negative reactions.

2. Further investigation might check on the above findings, with special attention directed to the higher negative emphasis at the senior high school level. Some hypotheses on this point are suggested in the chapter.

3. The high proportion of positive reactions to extracurricular activities is of interest chiefly because the boys and girls bring in the extracurricular activities as being related to their general progress through school, i.e., to good articulation.

4. It may be no surprise that high proportions of positive reaction are also found to situations in which the student is rewarded or progresses smoothly through school.

5. High proportions of negative reaction are most common, as one might expect, for situations or events involving punishments, accidents, retention in the same grade, or illness.

6. The higher proportion of negative reactions to moving to a new school community (68%) than to moving to the next school level (54%) suggests that these school children seem to find the former more of a barrier to progress than the latter. The fact that negative reactions are proportionately fewer for moving to the next school level may indicate that efforts to improve articulation at that point are helping children to make the adjustment to the next higher school level. This by no means eliminates articulation between levels as a problem point. Continued work on articulation of administrative school units (e.g., from elementary school to junior high school) should be accompanied by equally direct attention to helping children of this "mobile" generation in adjusting to the new situations they meet in moving from one school community to another.

7. The children's reactions to situations centering on teacher behavior and subject matter are almost equally balanced between positive and negative. Even if we allow for a probable neglect of mentioning favorable teacher behavior and subject matter treatment, because they are assumed, "half good and half bad" seems to suggest a need for teachers to recognize that their general behavior toward pupils and their presentation of subject matter can easily become barriers to pupil progress in school.

To get a clear picture of how boys and girls react to various articulation situations, we may need to know more than we can learn from proportions of positive and negative reactions. The present study supplies some data of a more specific character. Further research should check on ideas suggested by these findings:

1. The four most common types of positive reactions (about three-fourths of all positive reactions) are those of feeling "helped," happy, confident or successful, or a "generalized positive" reaction.

2. Happy reactions rank highest for these situations: moving to a new school community, moving to the next school level, extracurricular activities, rewards, and promotion.

3. The reaction of feeling "helped" ranks highest for these situations: teacher behavior, subject matter, and smooth progress.

4. Children's negative reactions to articulation situations are more diverse than their positive reactions. The most frequent types of negative reactions are these: a generalized negative reaction, feelings of incompetence, anger or resentment, strangeness or shyness, unhappiness, and feelings of being worried or anxious.

5. More specific relations of some of these negative reactions to certain situations are suggested.

The chapter concludes with a brief consideration of the strength of children's reactions to articulation situations and presents some findings to suggest further lines of study. Among these are the proportionately higher frequency of extremely negative reactions to punishment, retention, teacher behavior, and differences in teaching methods coupled with the higher proportions of extremely positive reactions to rewards, extra-curricular activities, generally smooth progress, and promotion.

What Do Children See as Causes of Their Reactions?

TO KNOW the cause of an ailment is not necessarily to know its cure. The physician may determine to his own satisfaction what has caused a patient's illness; he may still not know how to cure it. The psychologist may come to a conclusion as to the cause of a client's difficulty; he may still not know its remedy. The teacher may locate a cause for a pupil's particular education problem, but he still has to find a solution to that problem.

Further, the physician, the psychologist or the teacher may have found what *commonly* causes a type of difficulty (physical, psychological, or educational) and still not know what causes this type of difficulty for a particular patient, client or pupil.

Recognizing these somewhat discouraging facts is important. Not to recognize them leads only to overoptimism, so often followed by pessimistic or cynical abandonment of ideas which were not "all good" but not "all bad" either. The wiser course would seem to be a recognition of these difficulties and also of a brighter side of cause-cure relations. Although knowing the cause of an ailment is not the same as knowing its cure, it is a big step in that direction. Knowing causes of difficulties helps get at the root of the problem. It helps in seeking for solutions in areas which give promise of ultimate success. Though causes of seemingly similar difficulties may vary from one person to another, finding one or more *common* causes points the way toward helping many, if not all, individuals.

We are concerned in this book with problems of school articulation, with barriers and hindrances to steady progress of children through school, with interruptions in the desired continuity of their learning experiences. We have not found a definitive cure for articulation problems. Teachers, supervisors and administrators, however, are searching diligently for solutions to these problems; they are trying

practices designed to correct what they believe to be the causes of the problems. Sometimes they have not understood too well what the causes were and have therefore looked in the wrong places for the cures. Sometimes they have depended only on their own judgment about causes of articulation difficulties, when they might well have explored more thoroughly the causes of difficulty as seen by the pupils who had the problems. Nevertheless, some progress is being made toward answering the "why" questions about continuity problems.

Why? That is the question to which this chapter is devoted. The preceding chapters have presented findings: (a) limiting the problem to types of articulation situations recognized and reported by students; (b) pointing up the personal relations angle of continuity problems; and (c) indicating student reactions to the situations they reported. All of these considerations lead eventually to the *why's*. Why do students tend to select certain types of situations or events when asked to cite experiences promoting or blocking educational progress? Why do they react as they do to those experiences? What are the underlying causes of their reactions?

The present investigation cannot answer those questions completely, but the analysis of student reports does afford some evidence in response to the *why* questions. For the 4197 situations on which the preceding analyses were based, the analysts recorded definitely *stated* causes of student reaction in 59.7% of the cases and *implied* causes of student reaction in 29.4% of the cases; the remaining 10.9% of the students' descriptions of situations did not indicate their ideas as to what caused their reactions. Stated or implied causes for nearly 90% of the 4197 reported incidents should be a rich source of numerous sidelights on or clues to articulation problems in our schools. (Actually 4459 causes of student reactions were classified, because more than one cause was given in some cases.)

Before examining the findings presented in this chapter, the reader should recognize what the investigators consider limitations of these results:

1. We are dealing with *stated* and *implied causes of student reactions*, not with direct causes of articulation problems. Students told or implied why they reacted as they did in certain situations, *not* why the event occurred.
2. We are dealing with *student* reports of causes, not with reports of teachers or other educational experts.
3. We are dealing with *stated or implied* causes of student reactions, not with demonstrated fact. Insofar as the student reports are accurate,

and insofar as the interpretations are correct and objective, the causes are accurately stated or implied, but only to that degree.¹

4. Despite the three foregoing limitations and others mentioned above, these findings seem to have real significance for educators who will use them cautiously and in an exploratory manner. What the children in our schools think about what happens to them in school is sometimes wrong and sometimes right, but it is always a factor with which teachers must deal. After all, the children are the people who are experiencing well-articulated or poorly articulated education.

Student Mention of Causes of Positive and Negative Reactions

A list of 14 stated or implied causes of students' reactions to articulation situations was derived from careful study of the student reports. In classifying "causes," the investigators used these 14 categories and their opposites, or 28 different categories. Some of the items are self-explanatory; notes are included to make some of the category names more explicit. The categories are:

1. Success with subject matter (so-called "academic" success)
2. Success with physical activities (usually athletics)
3. Success with nonacademic and nonphysical activities (success in any area other than 1 or 2)
4. Orientation to building and program (in a "new" school)
5. Curriculum similarity (between successive school levels or between different schools)
6. Helpfulness of others with lessons (helpfulness in or out of school, but always with the student's school work)
7. Concern and interest of others (in personal and social matters, rather than in the student's lessons)
8. Friendliness of others
9. Fair treatment
10. Getting along with people (student's own success in social relations)
11. Finding new friends (after moving to new school or school level)
12. Losing old friends (when moving away from former school)

¹ The connotations of the terms "stated" and "implied," as applied to causes may best be indicated by these two examples:

A "stated" cause classified as "losing old friends": "Moving has been my family's pastime, it seems. But I've gotten accustomed to it. I dread moving because *it means leaving friends* but I always made friends fast at the new school and everything was all right again."

An "implied" cause classified as "losing old friends": "I felt pretty bad about moving last year and I still *feel a little lonesome* every now and then but it's not because I am not accepted because I am and I'm very active in sports."

13. Fear of people (actual expressions such as: "Because in the third grade my teacher was too strict and mean to me. I was afraid you would be the same. When I first came to school I was real scared. I was afraid that all the teachers weren't real nice and all the students were hard to make friends with.")

14. Fear of the unknown (anticipation that the new situation might include features with which the child could not cope: "I was afraid to come to school the first day. But later I got to know children." "I was afraid when I left the sixth grade. I was afraid of the new change, and of what it would be like but everything was fine.").

These 14 items and their opposites are the classifiable causes ascribed by students to the way they reacted to the situations they chose to report as helping or hindering their progress through school. This list could no doubt be expanded and revised by educators who have wider knowledge than do students about articulation problems and their causes. This list, however, is important because it represents what these students themselves considered to be the causal factors back of their reactions to the school experiences they chose to report.

In what order of frequency did students mention these stated or implied causes? Table 1 gives the answer to that question, supplying actual number of mentions and also rank order. "Success with subject matter" and its opposite, "lack of success with subject matter," head the list with a total of 1144 mentions between them. The next item in order, "concern and interest of other people," has almost 200 fewer mentions than the preceding item.

At the other extreme, we have only 6 mentions for the bottom-ranked "lack of fear of other people." Some of the lower ranking items in Table 1 have such low frequencies as to lack any real significance except to allow the reader to contrast them with their opposites appearing higher in the rank order.

The positive and negative implications of the various causes are indicated by the "+" and "-" columns for the rankings. One can follow the "+" column and quickly select the categories which have positive connotations, or follow the "-" column to select the negative ones. In this way one can easily derive from Table 1 a list of factors which students consider as causes of their positive reactions and another list of factors which they consider to be the causes of their negative reactions in articulation situations.

The first seven ranks alternate from positive to negative in a regular pattern: Rank 1, positive; Rank 2, negative; and so on through Rank 7. Ranks 7-10 are all positive; Ranks 11-15, all negative. This indicates somewhat of a balancing of causes for positive vs. negative reactions,

but with the emphasis on the positive side. This serves as a reminder that we are dealing with students' ideas of *causes for their reactions*—positive and negative. These are *not* causes of articulation problems, but reasons given by students for reacting as they did to continuity situations. Here we have clues to reasons for their favorable reactions. In other words, we are directed to explore further the implied suggestions for *preventing* articulation problems as well as suggestions as to what may have caused students to feel that they faced a difficulty.

Along the line of the same type of contrast, let us examine "opposite" items. We have already noted the adjacent ranks given to "success with subject matter" and "lack of success with subject matter" (Ranks 1 and 2), both being mentioned very frequently by children. Similarly,

Table 1.—Stated or Implied Causes of Student Reactions, Ranked According to Frequency for the Total Group of Students

Stated or implied causes	Number	Rank	
		+	—
Success with subject matter.....	587	1.0	
Lack of success with subject matter.....	557		2.0
Concern and interest of other people.....	376	3.0	
Losing old friends.....	353		4.0
Helpfulness of others with lessons.....	299	5.0	
Unfair treatment.....	294		6.0
Success in nonacademic and nonphysical activities.....	235	7.0	
Finding new friends.....	221	8.0	
Friendliness of others.....	177	9.0	
Orientation to building and program.....	153	10.0	
Fear of the unknown.....	145		11.0
Lack of orientation to building and program.....	143		12.0
Not having friends in new school.....	118		13.0
Lack of interest and concern by other people.....	101		14.0
Differences in curriculum.....	91		15.0
Success with physical activities.....	84	16.5	
Not getting along with people.....	84		16.5
Lack of help from others with lessons.....	78		18.0
Fear of other people.....	65		19.0
Unfriendliness of other people.....	63		20.5
Getting along with other people.....	63	20.5	
Fair treatment.....	38	22.0	
Keeping old friends.....	32	23.0	
Curriculum similarity.....	30	24.0	
Lack of success with physical activities.....	27		25.0
Lack of success with nonacademic and nonphysical activities.....	25		26.0
Lack of fear of the unknown.....	14	27.0	
Lack of fear of other people.....	6	28.0	
Total classified causes.....	4,459		

"orientation to building and program" and "lack of orientation to building and program" are close to each other in relative frequency of mention (Ranks 10 and 12).

The situation is very different for some other paired opposites. "Losing old friends" and "keeping old friends" are far apart in frequency of mention (Ranks 4 and 23), indicating more attention to loss of friends than to keeping them. This, of course, should not be interpreted to indicate relative importance of losing or keeping friends, but rather more concern with friendship relations when students fear losing them. The children are perhaps much like their elders, who also often seem to prize friends, health, or other "good things of life" when threatened with loss of these assets. Or look at "unfair treatment" (Rank 6) and "fair treatment" (Rank 22). Unfair treatment was mentioned 294 times; fair treatment, only 38 times. This does not necessarily indicate that these boys and girls had experienced more unfair than fair treatment. Perhaps they assume fair treatment most of the time. It is clear, however, that unfair treatment "stays with them" so that it is recalled and mentioned when they are given an opportunity to tell about experiences which have helped or hindered them in their progress through school.

Any teacher or school administrator might well benefit from reading the facts in Table 1, paying attention to such matters as: heavy emphasis on success and lack of success (1515 total mentions); importance of relations with other people; or concern with school subject matter in one way or another.

Causes Emphasized at Different School Levels

Do school children at different levels emphasize the same causes for reacting positively or negatively to continuity situations? A partial answer to that question is given in Table 2.²

Here again we find success or lack of success with subject matter standing out as the top causes of positive and negative reactions, respectively. From primary grades through senior high school, children mention or imply that how well they succeed with subject matter is very important to them. The positive side of the picture gets the top rank in the elementary school. In the junior high school the proportions of "success" and "lack of success" responses are so close as to be nearly the same. In the senior high school we seem to have a clear emphasis on the "lack of success" side. The combined per-

² More complete data on the same subject are supplied in Table 11 of Appendix B. Table 2 does not include responses for which no grade level was designated. Neither does it include cause categories which included less than 5% of the total responses for any given school level.

centages for Ranks 1 and 2 at the different school levels are approximately: 35% in primary grades; 28% in intermediate grades; 21% in junior high school; and 26% in senior high school. For all "cause" responses at any grade level, success and lack of success with subject matter comprise about 26% of the total, more than one in four. This would seem to belie the too-oft-repeated statement that "nowadays children in school don't care whether they succeed or not in their school work." Planning with and for school children so that they can be successful in attaining school objectives (assuming that the objectives are worthy and appropriate) would seem to be a very clear challenge from these data.

The importance of success experiences to children is further emphasized by the 7.3% of junior high school causes and the 8.1% of

Table 2.—Stated or Implied Causes of Student Reactions
(Percents and rank orders by school levels)

Stated or implied Causes of reactions ^a	Kindergarten— Grade 3		Grades 4—6		Grades 7—9		Grades 10—12	
	Rank	Percent ^b	Rank	Percent ^b	Rank	Percent ^b	Rank	Percent ^b
Success with subject matter	1.0	18.3	1.0	16.5	2.0	10.3	2.0	9.3
Lack of success with subject matter	2.0	14.5	2.0	11.8	1.0	11.0	1.0	16.9
Concern and interest of other people	6.0	6.4	3.0	9.4	4.0	6.9	3.0	8.5
Losing old friends	3.0	9.2	4.0	8.7	5.5	6.7		
Helpfulness of others with lessons	4.0	7.6	6.0	6.8				
Unfair treatment	5.0	7.1	5.0	7.8	8.5	5.5	5.0	7.2
Success in nonacademic and non-physical activities					3.0	7.3	4.0	8.1
Finding new friends					7.0	5.6	6.0	6.2
Orientation to building and program					5.5	6.7	7.0	5.2
Fear of the unknown					8.5	5.5		
Lack of orientation to building and program					10.0	5.0		
Other reasons combined		36.8		39.1		29.5		38.6

^a The items in this column are arranged in order of their frequency of occurrence for the total group of respondents.

^b These percents are based on the total number of stated or implied causes for the particular school level under consideration. Further details are supplied in Table 11 of Appendix B.

senior high school causes ascribed to "success with nonacademic and nonphysical activities," a general category for school activities which do not relate to class work or to sports (e.g., serving as a class officer, participating in school clubs, or making a speech at a school program). This category seems not to be so important to children in the elementary school, perhaps because of less emphasis there upon extra-curricular activities.

Another very important situation revealed in Table 2 is the significance seemingly attached by children to human relations in school. Notice these "causes": concern and interest of other people, which ranks third or fourth for each level but the primary grades, for which it ranks sixth; losing old friends, which ranks third and fourth, respectively, for primary and intermediate grade children, and is also among the higher ranks for junior high school children; helpfulness of others with lessons, ranked fourth and sixth, respectively, for primary grade and intermediate grade children; unfair treatment, emphasized at every grade level, with ranks from 5 to 8.5; and finding new friends, showing up more prominently at both high school levels. For the total group of "cause" responses at all grade levels, these categories comprise approximately 35% of the total, or more than a third. To the children who made the reports for this study, their own reactions to school experiences are heavily influenced by their friends in school and also by other persons who seem interested in them, help them with their lessons, or treat them unfairly—again a combination of positive and negative influences.

Comparing the ranks and percents, we may both compare and contrast the causal factors emphasized at the four different levels. Four categories are included for every level: success with subject matter, lack of success with subject matter, concern and interest of other people, and unfair treatment. These must be matters of large concern to children at all school levels, even though variations in emphasis are to be noted both as to ranks and percentages.

A comparison of the facts for primary and intermediate grade levels shows a remarkable consistency of emphasis throughout the elementary school. Exactly the same categories of indicated causes are ranked from 1 to 6, though in slightly different order. The exact percentages in each category are also similar.

The junior and senior high school groups show a certain consistency also, though not quite as markedly. For one thing, their more frequent responses seem to vary as to classified type more than do the elementary school responses, as shown by the larger number of categories with at least 5% of the total causes. The junior and the senior

high school share with each other but not with the elementary school groups their emphasis upon: success in nonacademic and nonphysical activities; finding new friends; and orientation to the school building and program.

The junior high school group shares with the elementary school groups a greater relative emphasis upon losing old friends than is shown for the senior high school. The junior high school group stands alone in its heavier emphasis upon fear of the unknown and lack of orientation to the school building and program, factors which probably relate to the time at which children transfer from the more simply organized elementary school to the more complex organization of the junior high school. (Other levels also reported these causes for reactions but not in 5% of the cases, a proportion which was required for inclusion in Table 2.)

Causes Emphasized in Particular Articulation Situations

Many people may consider the most helpful data in this whole research project to be the study of student-ascribed causes of their own reactions to particular types of articulation situations. The investigators themselves confess to a feeling of "finally getting somewhere" when they examined these data. They feel that here is the richest set of clues for educators who seek to do something constructive about improving continuity of learning for pupils from the primary grades through the senior high school.

For only eight types of situations did the children give as many as 100 causes of their reactions to each situation. These eight types of situations, considered in some detail in this section, are: moving to a new school community, situations hinging upon teacher behavior, situations dealing with subject matter, moving to the next higher school level, general smooth progress, extracurricular activities, differences in teaching methods, and rewards.

In reviewing the results given in Graphs XIII through XX, one should bear in mind that "cause" refers to a stated or implied cause of the student's reaction to a situation, not to a cause of the situation or event itself. For instance, a student may react negatively to moving to a new school community. The cause of his negative reaction to that situation is that he fears he will not have friends in the new school community. This is in no sense a cause of the moving. Or a child reacts favorably to some act of his teacher, such as offering helpful suggestions to encourage him in his art work and helping him find out about opportunities for work in that area of study. The concern and interest of this teacher are cited by the boy as

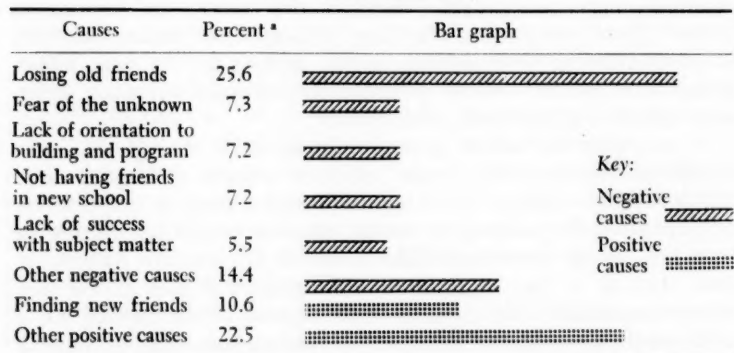
the cause of his favorable reaction to this situation; no cause is stated for the teacher's behavior.

Causes of Students' Reactions to Moving to a New School Community

Stated causes of students' negative reactions to moving to a new school community definitely outweigh the positive, the ratio being about 2 to 1. When boys and girls react negatively to this change, why is it? In Graph XIII we see some of the answers to that question. First, they are afraid of losing old friends (25.6% of all the stated or implied causes). If we put with that reason a related one, not having friends in the new school (7.2%), these two reasons amount to about a third of all the causes given by students in connection with moving to a new school community. Evidently, children dislike moving to new situations in which they have no friends. What can be done about it? The family may have to move, and the old friends cannot move with them; the teachers in the new school need to plan for helping new pupils find and keep new friends with as little difficulty as possible.

Two other causes are closely related to each other, and each accounts for about the same proportion of students' suggested causes of negative reactions: fear of the unknown (7.3%) and lack of orientation to the new building and program (7.2%). The boys and girls do not know what to expect in the new situation, so they are afraid of it. They are embarrassed about not knowing their way around in the new

Graph XIII.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Moving to a New School Community



* All percents are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph.
Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately.
Total number of causes = 1,118.

building or within the framework of the educational program in the new school. Obviously, anything that can be done to help orient the newcomer would help to remove the fear and insecurity indicated here. Maybe it cannot all be prevented; much of it can be made to disappear fairly soon after the move takes place.

Causes of favorable reactions when moving to a new school community suggest the other side of the coin, with "finding of new friends" being the only single cause with frequent occurrence. If we combine the 10.6% for this item with the 32.9% for losing old friends and not having friends in the new community, we can account for 43.5% of the causes of student reaction in the case of moving to a new school community. If we put first things first, it seems we had better help new pupils in a community *first of all* to find friends.

Lack of success with subject matter is given as the cause of student reaction in 5.5% of the cases; but what is that compared with 43.5% for friendship matters and 14.5% for other orientation considerations?

Causes of Students' Reactions to Moving to the Next School Level

In contrast to the situation of moving to a new school community, Graph XIV shows a total of 48.8% of causes for negative reactions to moving to the next higher school level (primary to intermediate grades, elementary to junior high school, or junior high school to senior high school). How do the reasons for not enjoying the move to the next higher level compare with those for not liking to move to a new school community? Losing old friends is cited in both situations but not nearly as frequently when moving to the next higher school level; obviously, many of a child's friends move with him to the next higher school in his home community. Finding new friends is mentioned more frequently (10.1%) than is losing old friends (7.9%); together they account for 18% of the causes cited in connection with going on to the next higher school level.

Fear of the unknown features of the new situation, lack of orientation to the new building and program, and lack of success with subject matter in the new school are represented by strikingly similar proportions in the two types of moving situations.

On the positive side, the most important cause, proportion-wise, is orientation to building and program. Evidently, children who participated in this study have had opportunities to benefit by aids to orientation as they made this transition; such orientation accounts for about one-eighth of all the causes given for this type of situation.

Finding new friends (with 10.1% of mention), friendliness of others (with 5.9%), and concern and interest of others (with 6.6%) constitute more than one-fifth of the given causes of student reaction to the change to a new school level. This is certainly encouraging.

Graph XIV.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Moving to the Next School Level

Causes	Percent *	Bar graph
Losing old friends	7.9	
Fear of the unknown	7.5	
Lack of orientation to building and program	7.5	
Lack of success with subject matter	6.6	
Other negative causes	19.3	
Orientation to building and program	12.2	
Finding new friends	10.1	
Concern and interest of other persons	6.6	
Success with subject matter	5.9	
Friendliness of others	5.9	
Other positive causes	10.4	

Key:

Negative causes
Positive causes

* All percentages are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph. Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately. Total number of causes = 623.

Success with subject matter at the new level, which was not mentioned frequently enough to be included in Graph XIII, is included in Graph XIV. In fact, success with subject matter is mentioned almost as frequently as lack of success with subject matter for this type of situation. One might speculate as to whether success with subject matter in the new school in another community is more difficult to attain than in the next higher school level in the same community. We cannot say on the basis of existing data, but the idea deserves further study.

Evidently, more efforts are being made at present to help children adjust to the next higher administrative unit of local school systems than to help transfer students from another community to make their adjustments. That efforts in this direction do help is evidenced by the larger dotted (i.e., positive) area in Graph XIV than in Graph XIII.

Causes of Students' Reactions to Teacher Behavior

Students' ideas of causes of their own reactions to teacher behavior are about equally balanced between positive and negative. (See Graph XV, which shows a total of 48.3% negative and a total of 51.8% positive causes.) Why do students sometimes react negatively to teacher behavior? (Remember this is teacher behavior which students associated with hindrance to their school progress.) The first answer is clear; unfair treatment of students by teachers is the leading cause of negative student reaction, accounting for more than one-fifth of the causes in this type of situation. "Unfair" here means unfair from the student's point of view; of course, no evidence is available from any other point of view. No opposite cause is apparent among the causes of favorable reactions; fair treatment is certainly not absent, but perhaps it is assumed.

Two other causes of negative reactions by students to teacher behavior are: lack of success with subject matter and lack of interest and concern of other persons, presumably teachers. Each of these should be considered in relation to its opposite among the causes of positive student reactions in Graph XV. Lack of success with subject matter is given as a cause in 7.8% of the cases, but success with subject matter is given as a cause in 9.6% of the cases. It would seem that students react favorably to teacher behavior slightly more often

Graph XV.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Teacher Behavior

Causes	Percent ^a	Bar graph
Unfair treatment	21.7	
Lack of success with subject matter	7.8	
Lack of interest and concern by other persons	5.3	
Other negative causes	13.5	
Concern and interest of other persons	18.0	
Helpfulness of others with lessons	10.5	
Success with subject matter	9.6	
Other positive causes	13.7	

Key:

Negative causes

Positive causes

^a All percents are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph.
 Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately.
 Total number of causes = 857.

because of their success with subject matter than they react negatively because of their lack of success with subject matter. Now, if we include helpfulness of others with lessons as a cause of positive behavior, we have a total of more than 20% of the student-given causes which indicate that students give teachers credit for helping them attain success in dealing with subject matter in school. This contrasts with less than 8% of student-given causes indicating that teachers were blamed for students' lack of success with subject matter.

Another pair of causes also shows a positive emphasis placed by students: 18.0% of causes classified as concern and interest of other persons, presumably teachers, and 5.3% of causes classified as lack of interest and concern by other persons, also presumably teachers. We have here some evidence of students' appreciation of teachers' concern for them and interest in them, when it exists.

The students' assigned causes of their reactions to what teachers do would seem to indicate that their biggest complaint is that of unfair treatment, while their greatest appreciation is recognition of teachers' interest in them and helpfulness to them.

Causes of Students' Reactions to Situations Centering Around Subject Matter

When the school children in this study report subject matter as a focal point in their steady progress or lack of progress through school, they are evidently thinking in terms of success or lack of success in learning the subject matter. This is obvious in Graph XVI, which shows almost exactly equal proportions of causes on the positive and negative

Graph XVI.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Subject Matter

Causes	Percent *	Bar graph
Lack of success with subject matter	32.9	
Other negative causes	9.5	
Success with subject matter	32.5	
Helpfulness of others with lessons	13.8	
Concern and interest of other persons	5.2	
Other positive causes	6.1	

Key:
 Negative causes
 Positive causes

* All percentages are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph. Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately. Total number of causes = 748.

sides. Together, success and lack of success with subject matter comprise 65% of the students' reported causes of reaction. One might well include helpfulness of others with lessons (13.8%) because of its implied effect on success with subject matter, in which case we would have nearly 80% of the causes included. That is, in 4 cases out of 5 these school children consider their success or lack of success in learning subject matter as explaining their reactions to subject matter as a factor in school progress. One might ask what else could they consider when thinking of subject matter as a help or hindrance to their progress through school? One possible reply might be the nature of the subject matter. Evidently these students thought, however, in terms of success and lack of success.

Causes of Students' Reactions to Differences in Teaching Methods

Though there were not nearly as many situations reported for differences in teaching methods as there were for situations involving subject matter, it is interesting to compare the two types of situations as shown in Graphs XVI and XVII. Reactions to differences in teaching methods are more frequently negative than reactions to situations involving subject matter in general. The negatively oriented causes ascribed by students are also more varied. Lack of success with subject matter is again the most frequently mentioned cause of student reaction, but there seems to be an almost equally large proportion of

Graph XVII.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Differences in Teaching Methods

Causes	Percent ^a	Bar graph	
Lack of success with subject matter	24.1		
Lack of help from others with lessons	7.4		
Other negative causes	20.4		
Differences in curriculum	9.3		
Success with subject matter	13.9		
Other positive causes	25.0		

Key:

Negative causes

Mixed causes

Positive causes

^a All percents are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph.

Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately.

Total number of causes = 108.








miscellaneous negative causes. Lack of help from others with lessons (7.4%) pooled with lack of success with subject matter would put about one-third of the causes together. This would seem to indicate that students' negative reactions to differences in teaching methods arise most frequently when students are not successful or feel they do not get enough help in learning. Similarly, their most frequent reason for reacting favorably to differences in teaching method was their success with subject matter taught by the different method.

It would seem that if the teacher who uses a different method uses it successfully (in terms of student success), students do not report such differences in method, but if the teacher uses a different method so that students are not successful in the situation, they do report such differences in method as hindering their progress. Evidently, these children also think that differences in curriculum give rise to differences in teaching method, which seems logical. However, the reactions to such differences are sometimes positive, sometimes negative.


Causes of Students' Reactions to Extracurricular Activities


As reported in an earlier chapter, students' mentions of extracurricular activities as being related to their progress through school tend to emphasize a positive rather than a negative relationship between extracurricular activities and continuity of learning experience

Graph XVIII.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Extracurricular Activities

Causes	Percent *	Bar graph
Miscellaneous negative causes	10.9	
Success in nonacademic and non-physical activities	45.6	
Success with physical activities	12.3	
Orientation to building and program	8.8	
Concern and interest of others	6.6	
Success with subject matter	5.7	
Other positive causes	10.1	

Key:

Negative causes 










Positive causes 

* All percentages are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph. Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately. Total number of causes = 228.


in general. This positive emphasis is also apparent in Graph XVIII, in which nearly 90% of the stated or implied causes of reactions are on the favorable side. "Nothing succeeds like success" is certainly an appropriate slogan here. Success with subject matter, success with physical activities (chiefly sports), and success with other school activities represent nearly 64% of the favorable causes of reactions by students, with the last named type of success by far the most frequently mentioned (45.6%). A student is successful in a class play because of prior success in a school course in speech. A student is successful in athletics either as part of the school's regular physical education program or not. A student feels successful in whatever role he plays in student government, school clubs, class activities, social events, or numerous other extracurricular activities. And *because* of these success experiences he reports that extracurricular activities have a bearing on helping him progress smoothly through school, in which case they may not be so "extra" (or external) after all.


Attention to the emphasis on success should not make us neglect two other causes mentioned fairly frequently by students: orientation to the school building and program, with emphasis on the latter, and the concern and interest of other people. That is, orientation to the extracurricular program of a school may have caused a student

Graph XIX.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Smooth Progress

Causes	Percent *	Bar graph
Miscellaneous negative causes	6.9	
Success with subject matter	20.1	
Helpfulness of others with lessons	19.0	
Concern and interest of other persons	18.6	
Friendliness of others	7.7	
Finding new friends	6.6	
Success with nonacademic and nonphysical activities	6.6	
Success with physical activities	5.1	
Other positive causes	9.5	

Key:

Negative causes 

Positive causes 

* All percents are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph. Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately. Total number of causes = 274.

to feel that that program helped him to make progress; and the concern and interest of other people in a student's extracurricular activities may have helped him make steady progress. These relationships recognized by students may well be remembered by adults who wish to promote pupil progress.

Causes of Students' Reactions to Smooth Progress

As would be expected, students' reactions to smooth progress in general tend to be favorable; consequently, their stated and implied causes for those reactions are heavy on the positive side. In Graph XIX we find no cause of negative reactions frequent enough to serve as a separate category of causes. On the positive side, the stated and implied reasons for positive reactions to smooth school progress appear in this order: success with subject matter; helpfulness of others with lessons; concern and interest of other persons; friendliness of others; finding new friends; success in extracurricular activities other than athletics; and success with physical activities, mostly sports. The question answered in Graph XIX is: When students report that their progress through school has been smooth and steady, what do they give as the reasons for their favorable reaction to that smooth progress? In 2 cases out of 5, the answer is either success with subject matter or the helpfulness of others with lessons, both of which relate directly to academic success. The students are saying in effect that when they succeed in school work, they feel good about it

Graph XX.—Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions to Rewards

Causes	Percent ^a	Bar graph
Miscellaneous negative causes	2.9	
Success with subject matter	42.2	
Success with nonacademic and non-physical activities	36.3	
Success with physical activities	6.9	
Other positive causes	11.8	

Key:

Negative causes

Positive causes

^a All percents are rounded off to the nearest whole percent for the graph. Only categories which include at least 5% of the total are listed separately. Total number of causes = 102.

and consider their progress as smooth. In about another 1 out of 3 cases, the answer is a matter of friendliness and interest of other people in the students, highlighting success in social relations as a cause of feeling good about smooth progress. The success angle is emphasized by a different combination of three "success" sections of the graph, accounting for over 30% of the suggested causes of favorable reactions to smooth progress.

Causes of Students' Reactions to Rewards

Study of Graph XX reveals still another "success story." In school situations in which the student receives a reward of some kind, the cause of his favorable reaction to the situation (in 85% of the cases) is his feeling of having been successful—successful in academic or nonacademic activities, in curricular or extracurricular matters. Though Graph XX does not show it, a reading of student reports indicates very clearly that the students' reported feelings of success are heavily influenced by other people's evaluations of their performance. When other people recognize students for doing well in any way, they feel successful and react positively to the whole situation. The whole situation in the student's mind becomes associated with helps to his school progress; he sees his successes as contributing to the continuity of his school learning experiences.

Chapter Summary

Why do the boys and girls in this study react as they do to the various articulation situations they chose to report? This chapter summarizes the evidence which gives a partial answer to that very important question. The limitations in the data and some cautions in interpreting those data are set forth in the early part of the chapter.

Causes of reaction, as stated or implied by school children, are ranked as to frequency of mention in Table 1 on page 65. The alternating pattern of positive and negative causes, especially in the higher ranks of cause, is very interesting. Three emphases stand out when causes are grouped according to relatedness of meaning. These are:

1. Emphasis on success or lack of success (chiefly with subject matter, but also with other school activities)
2. Emphasis on the importance of human relations
3. Emphasis on concern with subject matter and lessons.

When causes assigned by students for their positive and negative reactions are analyzed by school levels, some clues are suggested to children's reactions at the different levels. The following findings from the present data should be checked by further research:

1. Children at all school levels emphasize both success with subject matter and lack of success with subject matter as the most frequently assigned causes of their positive and negative reactions, respectively, to articulation situations.

2. Of the two, success is indicated more often than lack of success with subject matter by the elementary school children, both in primary and intermediate grades.

3. Of the two, lack of success is emphasized more than success with subject matter by the senior high school students.

4. At both junior and senior high school levels, success in nonacademic and nonphysical school activities is a high ranking cause of students' favorable reactions with respect to articulation.

5. More than a third of the indicated causes of pupil reaction at the various levels may be classified in the human relations area. Included as parts of that general classification are concern and interest of other people and unfair treatment, both of which are ranked high in importance at every school level.

6. The six top ranking causes of pupil reaction are the same for primary and intermediate grade children.

7. Success in extracurricular activities, finding new friends, and orientation to the school building and program are emphasized at the junior and senior high school levels but not in the elementary school.

8. The senior high school group emphasizes losing old friends less than do the earlier school groups.

9. The junior high school level differs from all the other school levels in its emphasis on lack of orientation to the school building and program and on fear of the unknown factors in the new school situation. This is related to the transition from elementary to junior high school.

Further analysis was made of the causes stated or implied by school children as explaining their positive and negative reactions to particular types of articulation situations. Since this analysis probably comes closer than any other to "explaining" why school children react as they do in certain situations, it may yield some of the most significant "leads" for further study. These findings are presented by the following types of situations in which continuity of school learning was considered.

1. *When moving to a new school community*, children's negative reactions to the situation seem to be caused most often by losing old friends and not having friends in the new location. Finding new friends is also important to them as an explanation of their positive reactions to this situation.

Fear of the unknown factors in the new school and lack of orientation to the new building and program in general are related factors which also

rank high among children's indicated causes of negative reactions when they move into a new community.

2. When children *move to the next higher school level*, they use fear of the unknown and lack of orientation as explanations of negative reactions in about the same proportion of cases as they do for moving to a new school community.

Otherwise, the situation of moving to the next higher level seems to be more favorably accepted than moving to a new community, with the favorable reactions being explained most frequently in terms of orientation to the building and program, and evidences of friendliness and helpfulness by other people.

3. When school children report that the *actions of teachers* affect the continuity of their school progress, the most commonly reported cause of a negative pupil reaction is a claim that the pupil was treated unfairly by a teacher.

All other commonly reported causes deal with subject matter or the interest and concern of teachers for children. In each case, the positive aspect either balances or outweighs the negative.

The most commonly used reasons for a positive reaction by pupils to teacher behavior are represented by recognition of the teacher's interest in the students or helpfulness to the students in school work.

4. In situations where school children reported helps or hindrances to their progress as focusing upon *subject matter*, they explained their positive and negative reactions chiefly in terms of success or lack of success with the subject matter. That is, if they were successful with subject matter, they reacted favorably and felt that continuity had been good; if they were unsuccessful, they reacted unfavorably and felt that continuity of learning had been hindered or interrupted.

5. Differences in teaching methods seem to draw favorable reactions when the children have success in learning under the different method, and unfavorable reactions when the children do not succeed in learning as well by the different method.

6. Success is heavily emphasized as explaining the large proportions of positive reactions of students to *extracurricular activities*; but orientation and the concern and interest of other people are often associated with the extracurricular activities reported by students as favoring their general progress through school.

7. When children report generally *smooth progress* (i.e., good continuity), they most frequently explain their favorable reactions in terms of (a) success with subject matter and help of others with lessons, (b) friendliness and interest of other people toward them, and (c) success experiences in general.

8. As one might expect, situations in which children reported the receiving of rewards as facilitating their general school progress, they

explained their favorable reactions largely in terms of feeling successful in one way or another.

Careful consideration of the implications of the above findings should give teachers and administrators much food for thought on the pros and cons of helping boys and girls achieve desirable continuity among their learning experiences in school.

Part Two

Firmer Foundations for Continuity

Exploring Foundations for Continuity

A LARGE number of school children have "had their say" in the preceding section of this yearbook. Some light has been thrown on various facets of the articulation picture in our schools across the nation: on pupils' views of their articulation difficulties, on situations within which the problems seem frequently to arise, on both positive and negative reactions of children to continuity situations, and on suggested causes of those positive and negative reactions. The findings of Part One are by no means conclusive; they represent merely the views of 3000 school children contacted by the yearbook committee. Nevertheless, Part One of this publication does pose some fruitful lines for further exploration and some clues to future action.

Foundations for Continuity

Part Two approaches articulation of pupils' school learning experiences from a different angle, but one which is in no sense contradictory or opposed to the findings of Part One. The preceding research report has localized and elaborated on articulation situations now existing in schools; Part Two makes a different type of exploration—an exploration of firmer foundations on which to base efforts to prevent and to solve articulation difficulties of children in school.

The establishment of desirable degrees and types of continuity among children's learning experiences in school will eventually come about if school procedures and policies are consistent with sound psychological and educational principles and clearly formulated objectives. Basic issues concerning articulation deal not with this specific practice versus that specific practice but with our choices of educational objectives and our reliance on sound principles of human development and learning, and of curriculum development. When we choose these objectives and

principles, we should also, of course, choose to put them into practice in a variety of ways which are consistent with them.

Considerations of How Pupils Live and Learn

School articulation problems will never be solved apart from consideration of the school population and of how the pupils live and learn. A whole set of basic issues concerning continuity of experience for learners revolves around what we know about human growth, development and learning.

It is no contradiction to say that human growth, development and learning are typified by both continuity and variation. In the life of every boy and girl continuity of development is apparent; one phase of development leads into another. Irregularities may occur but the continuity of advancement toward maturity need not be lost because of those irregularities—need not be lost, that is, if teachers understand the developmental process and the particular pupil and his problems.

For each learner in our schools we want continuous development to a level of performance and maturity commensurate with his potentialities. But this can never be achieved unless we truly accept the fact of individuality.

Here we touch upon one of the sore points in American education. We have before us in many twelve-year school systems a paradox. As the children grow older, as they progress from one grade level to the next, they become more and more different; but we do less and less about adapting the school program to those differences! We wish it were not so. We turn our backs on the evidence and pretend that it does not exist. To expect children to become more and more alike as they progress through our schools is unrealistic.

All elementary school teachers are by no means equally concerned about or equally skilled in applying what is known about basic principles of child growth, development and learning. Nor are secondary school teachers equally concerned or skilled in this area. Since individual differences are as characteristic of teachers as of learners, one cannot assume equality in these matters or expect to attain it, but certainly one might hope to convince more teachers than are at present convinced of their responsibilities to children in the light of what is known about growth, development and learning.

The fundamental principles of effective learning and teaching are the same for learners of all ages. Teachers and school administrators need to recognize this fact and act accordingly.

Chapter 7, which follows immediately, examines a selected set of basic ideas and principles concerning human development and learning.

The selection has been made in terms of the relation of each idea or principle to school articulation, or continuity of school learning experiences. In Part Three of this book the reader will find reports of school practices being tried out in various communities. Many of these practices are related (in higher or lesser degree) to the principles developed in Chapter 7. Actually, the principles of human development and learning presented there may be a basis for evaluating the practices reported in Part Three, as well as for evaluating current procedures in the reader's home school or school system.¹

Educational Objectives and Articulation

School articulation problems will never be solved except in relation to the basic position taken by educators, individually and collectively, with respect to the objectives of schools.

Some people say that attainment of skill in reading, writing and arithmetic belongs to the elementary school; but certainly it belongs as well among secondary school and college objectives.

Another objective of education which most of us want for young America is development of power in critical thinking. Some would say this must belong to the secondary or collegiate level of schooling; but surely younger children have problems to solve. If the data of Part One of this yearbook are at all reliable, children of all school levels have plenty of critical thinking to do just to meet the articulation problems which adults have set in their paths.

Development of the characteristics of a good citizen is another objective which has been generally recommended. Is this something we want for children in certain selected communities or in all communities? Certainly we want good citizens from the coast of Maine to the Gulf of Catalina and from Puget Sound to the Florida Keys. As children move from school to school—and they do move often—should they not find in each of their schools similar emphasis on worthy citizenship?

The fundamental objectives of education—development of basic skills, development of critical thinking, development of ethical character and good citizenship and certain others—are objectives for all of education from the kindergarten on. Differences may appear as the broad, inclusive objectives are broken down in terms of types, degrees and levels of attainment within each.

Because this book deals with articulation from kindergarten through high school, it is necessary here to emphasize the common objectives of

¹ Chapter 14 describes a study of child development conducted by a group of principals in one school system. It serves as an example of how one group improved its understandings in this area.

education within that range. The basic issue here has three parts: (a) How can elementary and secondary school faculties, with their supervisory and administrative leaders, arrive at some agreements on objectives they hold in common? (b) How can they learn to work together toward the attainment of those common objectives? (c) How can educators in general, from community to community, come to some fundamental agreements as to what they want for American children? These questions must be faced if school children are to experience that degree of continuity of learning experience to which they are entitled.

For anyone who asks these questions, help is provided in Chapter 8, which is devoted to consideration of relationships between educational objectives and continuity of children's school learning. The chapter does not prescribe what the objectives should be. Rather, it suggests some basic principles to be observed in formulating and in seeking to achieve educational objectives. If these principles are followed, articulation should improve. In line with Chapter 7 on child development and learning, Chapter 8 also provides some bases for evaluating the practices and procedures for improving articulation which are described in Part Three of this yearbook.

Curriculum Development and Articulation

In the light of the decisions made regarding educational objectives and regarding child growth, development and learning, what sort of curriculum should be planned to provide the optimum continuity in every child's school experiences as he goes through the elementary and secondary schools? What curricular content should be provided for all pupils? What should be provided for some but not for others? How should the curriculum be organized so as to result in the highest quality of continuity in the learner's experience?

The real curriculum, the curriculum which has taken effect, the curriculum which will make a difference in the lives of the learners is that part of the hypothetical curriculum which they have learned so that it becomes a part of them. The *effective* curriculum is not written in a book or a course of study; it is written in the changed behavior of those who learn.

Teachers at all levels should have a common understanding of the whole school program. The more each teacher knows about the curriculum which precedes or follows or goes alongside of that part he is teaching at a given level or in a given subject area, the better are the pupil's chances of smooth transition from one level to another or from one subject area to another.

Helping teachers to arrive at common understandings about curric-

ulum at different school levels and in different content areas and for different children in a given school is a basis for improved continuity. This common understanding is being built in some school systems through curriculum study and revision by teachers from different levels, through discussions and demonstrations, through sharing of materials, and in many other ways. The reader should ask himself: Is anything being done about this in my school system? Am I promoting this type of cooperative study?

Chapter 9 suggests that curriculum sequences based on the logic of subject matter may be inadequate as a basis for the continuity of learning which our schools should provide. To replace scope and sequence defined in terms of subject matter logic, a redefinition of curriculum content is suggested. Consideration is given to organization of curriculum in terms of basic concepts and understandings in the various subject areas and in terms of skills and abilities needed to meet recurring problems of living. Some implications of these suggestions for practice are mentioned; additional suggestions are also available in Part Three of this book.

Consideration of Basic Ideas

Real progress toward better articulation of children's school experiences will take place when people who guide these experiences realize the integrative force of:

1. Well chosen and skillfully used educational objectives within the whole school program
2. Fundamental principles of child development and learning
3. Re-examination of the bases for organization of the curriculum.

The yearbook committee urges careful consideration of this threefold approach to improved articulation of children's learning experiences.

Considering Implications of Child Growth, Development and Learning

A KNOWLEDGE and understanding of the children with whom they work is one of the important characteristics of teachers concerned with providing well-articulated experiences in the school learning environments of children. Principles of child growth, development and learning have been presented by previous yearbooks of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, as well as by numerous publications which almost daily come to the attention of teachers and administrators. The research available today on how children in our society grow, develop and learn is most extensive, and the profession of teaching is increasingly dedicated to understanding and applying basic principles of human growth, development and learning to the end that children may be helped to grow into effective and productive citizens.

This chapter will provide, in part, a foundation for a sound approach to articulation as well as attempt to establish several criteria which may be used for evaluating specific practices which are described in later chapters.

Some Principles of Child Growth and Development

Several pages which follow, will remind the reader briefly of some aspects of children's development which are basic to a well-articulated school program. Because abundant material on child growth and development is available elsewhere, and because an understanding of how children grow and develop is also implied in much of the discussion of principles of learning, this first section of the chapter will be somewhat less extensive than the later section devoted to children's learning and how it proceeds.

Physical Factors in Development

*"A knowledge of how children grow, namely, the sequential changes, and the variability in the rate of growth from time to time and from child to child should give every adult who lives or works with children a basis for understanding the individual child. Thus, the adult can set the stage for the child, fit his activities to his maturity and rate of physical development, remove obstacles to development and provide him with the necessary prerequisites for growth."*¹

The child grows and develops as a whole; he responds and adapts to his varied environment with his entire being; therefore, effective learning requires a modification of the whole organism. And though we speak of those factors relating to the physical, social and emotional growth of the child as if they were separate aspects of his development, it is recognized that each affects the other and all are closely interrelated.

The traditional school of a generation ago gave too little thought to the physical development of children and the relation of this development to the curriculum. Most teachers today, however, recognize the significance of this aspect of the child's development. Classes in teacher education institutions, in-service development programs, professional conferences at state and national levels, and current periodicals give emphasis, at one time or another, to the importance of the child's physical development. Many teachers today recognize the relevance of many aspects of physical development to a curriculum which provides continuity and meaning in the child's learning experience. They recognize, among others, such factors of physical development as: unique variations within the growth pattern; the sex differential in the rate and timing of growth; differences in energy transmutation; physical disabilities and their effects upon personality development and learning; and the self concept as it is based on one's perception of his physical being.

The child is essentially a physical organism, and the teacher must recognize him as such if continuity in learning experiences is to be satisfactory. In all phases of the curriculum and in all aspects of the life of the school the individual child's level of maturation and rate of physical development must be taken into account if he, as a learner, is to see the relationships within and between the various experiences of which he is a part.

Social Factors in Development

"Society determines in some areas of behavior what an individual must want to do, what he must do, when he must do it, how he must

¹ Marian E. Breckenridge and E. L. Vincent. *Child Development*. New York: W. B. Saunders Co., 1955. p. 248.

*do it, and how he shall know that he has been successful in doing it."*²

The child is a social being. He lives, from birth, not in isolation but as a member of a society composed of many subcultures. His long period of dependency requires that he be in almost constant interaction with others. Even later, when he has reached adult status, he cannot live independently of others. His effectiveness depends, in large measure, on his relations with other people.

The teacher is sometimes apt to forget the many forces outside the classroom which constantly mold and shape the children's growth and development. He too often thinks of the child as one who approaches each new experience with a fresh and unsullied mind. If the school is to provide an articulated program of learning activities for children, then a teacher must know the out-of-school forces which have shaped and are constantly continuing to shape the behavior of the children he teaches.

The child has been a member of a family unit for five or six years of his life before entering school. He is subject to the socializing influence of cultural agents other than the school during approximately three-fourths of his waking day. The peer group, the church, youth organizations, camps, mass media of communication, the social class system and many other forces shape the child's development.

To provide maximum continuity of learning experiences, the school must select its objectives and plan its learning activities with due consideration of the influences of these social factors. In other words, teachers must work toward better articulation not only from level to level in the schools, but also between the school and each of the out-of-school agents which has a significant effect on the child's behavior.

Personality Development

*"The child is more than a composite of many separate physiological and psychological factors; he is a dynamic personality functioning as an organism in his ever-expanding environment."*³

All forms of development are interrelated. The child functions as an entity. This principle may seem so obvious that some readers may question its significance. Yet many teachers in their planning and working with children have not acted in accordance with it. When the child is confronted with a page of written symbols which he must read and interpret, every aspect of his development comes into focus. He responds

² William E. Martin and Celia B. Stendler. "The Process of Growing Up in Society." *Child Development*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, copyright 1953. (Reprinted with their permission.) p. 249.

³ Karl C. Garrison. *Growth and Development*. New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1952. p. 409.

to the printed page not only intellectually, but physically, socially and emotionally as well. And so articulation of the school program must occur on many fronts concurrently. The teacher is not meeting the problem if he concerns himself with only one phase of the child's development to the exclusion of others. For example, if he concentrates on articulation as it pertains to intellectual development only, the attempt may quite possibly fail. Faulty articulation in other aspects of development can easily have effects which also undermine smooth intellectual progress.

The child's personality is not static—it is dynamic. The child whom the teacher greets at his classroom door in September will not be the same child to whom he bids farewell in June. Each new experience adds or detracts something; each new relationship leaves its imprint; each new situation has its effect. The child is changing all the time. He should not be expected to "stand still" in his physical, social or emotional growth from the beginning of the school year to the end.

Not only is the child's development continuous, it is also unique. One child's reactions to the experiences, situations and relationships which contribute greatly to the shaping of his personality will differ from another child's reaction to these influences. In order, therefore, to understand and guide a child, the teacher must see the world as it exists for the child himself. And so articulation and continuity of learning experiences must occur *within the child*. Since the pattern of growth and development is unique for each child, continuity must be built upon the profile of each child's own growth, rather than on what is "typical" of his age level or his grade in school.

Some Principles of Learning

Principles of learning are very closely related to principles of child growth and development. The close relationship lies in the fact that learning is one of the two major processes through which individual development can take place: maturation and learning. All aspects of human development are results of one or both of these two processes.

School articulation is a matter of continuity of learning experiences for children who attend schools. The schools exist in order that certain learnings may occur so that children may grow and develop in desirable ways. It follows that any approach to articulation or continuity of learning experiences in school must be firmly rooted in well-established principles of how learning takes place and how it can be controlled to the advantage of the learner. The following principles have been selected from the literature on learning as those having the most important implications for studying problems of articulation.

Readiness for Learning

"Learning is a function of 'readiness' to learn, that is, it is a function of the mental, physical, educational, and social maturity of the learner."⁴

A common expression with a meaning very similar to this principle is this: "The teacher must begin where the learner is." Similarly, we often hear that "new learning builds upon old." One important aspect of readiness has to do with meaningfulness. The ease with which new material is learned depends on the extent to which it has meaning for the learner. Hence any effective approach to teaching must be based upon careful study of the past experience of the learner. New material to be learned will be meaningful insofar as the learner is able to see relationships between the elements of the new learning and the things he has previously understood or experienced. He must also have a mastery of the abstractions (word meanings, concepts, generalizations, and so forth) he will use in acquiring the new learning. For example, in teaching English literature, the teacher must recognize that in order to read a literary selection with understanding and enjoyment, the student must first have certain background in vocabulary, ability to recognize figures of speech, or familiarity with various styles of writing. Otherwise, the requirement to read the assignment is likely to seem like pointless drudgery to the student.

Unfortunately, attempts are sometimes made to "short circuit" the process of making learning meaningful. For example, a student may take science courses which are taught by requiring, or at least allowing, students to memorize statements of fact, concepts, principles and formulas without understanding what they mean. If the student takes several successive courses in science which are taught this way, he is almost certain, sooner or later, to find himself in a course in which he has not the slightest notion as to what it is all about—unless, of course, he succeeded through his own efforts or out-of-class help in understanding the material. Such a situation surely would constitute a block to learning progress and an eventual breakdown as far as articulation and continuity of learning experiences are concerned.

Most teachers know that the learning of any school subject, particularly one with a great deal of logical relatedness like science or mathematics, is more meaningful and permanent if the student understands it *as he goes*. Attempting to cover the material faster by resorting to meaningless memorization merely creates a delusion of being able

⁴G. L. Anderson and A. I. Gates. "The General Nature of Learning." *Learning and Instruction*. Forty-Ninth Yearbook, Part I, Nelson B. Henry, editor. National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950. p. 34.

to move ahead more rapidly. Meaningless, unrelated details are very soon forgotten. If meanings are acquired all along the way, however, new learning will be much easier, because it will involve only slight extensions of concepts or skills already developed. For example, algebra will be much easier for the student if he really understands the "why's and wherefore's" of the arithmetic processes he learned in elementary school.

Many other factors have a bearing on readiness. This is more than simply having the knowledge or the experience background necessary for the new learning. Readiness is determined also by physical and intellectual maturation, motivational factors growing out of social development, and the other aspects of development suggested in the first part of this chapter.

Readiness is important not only in kindergarten and first grade where it is most commonly dealt with in connection with the beginning of instruction in reading and arithmetic; it is important at all levels in the educational process. The child is not ready to study geography until he has acquired a repertory of concepts of spatial relationships. He cannot learn to spell until he is able to differentiate the letters of the alphabet. He cannot learn to write compositions before he acquires at least a partial control of sentence structure. He is hardly ready for guidance in the area of dating and boy-girl relationships, in general, until his own development takes him to the stage of being concerned about such matters.

The relationship of this principle to articulation should be obvious, but nonetheless it is worthy of careful consideration. If each new learning task confronting the child is something for which he is mentally, physically, educationally and socially ready, learning will be easier and more rapid. His progress from learning task to learning task will be smoother. On the other hand, if he has not reached a level of readiness for what he is asked to learn, breaks in articulation will occur. Without readiness, the progress of his learning in the desired direction will be slow or nonexistent, which, by definition, constitutes faulty articulation.

Human Needs and the Learning Process

*"... Learning, like all other experiencing and behaving, is an active process which results from the efforts of the individual to satisfy his needs."*⁵

The foregoing principle is perhaps the most fundamental of all

⁵ Donald Snygg and Arthur W. Combs. *Individual Behavior*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949. p. 50.

principles of learning. These three conditions must be met before learning can occur: (a) a need or drive exists in the individual, (b) a goal or desired end result is perceived by the individual as offering satisfaction of the need, and (c) the individual makes an effort to attain the goal or desired end result. It is important to add that if the learner's efforts are accompanied by satisfaction, his behavior at, or close to, the point of satisfaction will tend to be strengthened. That is, this pattern of behavior is somewhat more likely to be repeated if the individual, with similar motivation, is confronted with another situation that is perceived in a similar manner.

An example of this process might be the case of a student who has a strong need for recognition or feeling important. He becomes aware of the possibility of running for an office in student government and decides to do so. In proceeding to solve the problem of how to get elected, he might study methods of effective campaigning, details of the student government charter and organization, school problems on which he could base his campaign, effective speaking, and perhaps other matters as well. As a result of this inquiry he would surely learn something about many of these things.

In this example, the basic elements involved in the learning are these:

1. The need (for recognition)
2. Perception of a goal (to be elected to an office in the student government)
3. Activities of the individual to attain the goal (studying ways and means of getting elected).

To make further use of this example, we should note that if the student did succeed in getting elected, the satisfaction he realized would tend to cause the behavior patterns associated with his victory to be reinforced. These behaviors would be somewhat more likely to occur again in similar situations because of this experience.

The needs of the learner influence learning in another very important way. An individual's perception is profoundly influenced by his needs. A common example is that of young couples in the courting stage of their relationship. Being very much in love and wanting to see only the good things in each other, this is often all they do see. Later on, however, if one of the couple feels seriously wronged by the other, faults will be much more readily perceived. In other words, perceptions are very much influenced by what one hopes to perceive and what one expects to perceive. Obviously, what we perceive influences learning, for learning takes place through the process of perception. Hence, the

influences of needs on perception become influences of needs on what is learned.

Because of its fundamental importance in the process of learning, the principle stating the relation of needs and the learning process is most important in connection with articulation. If the instruction given is in conflict with this principle, the desired learning cannot be expected to result. Learning will occur, to be sure, but not often in the direction of the stated objectives of instruction. When this happens, articulation is at least temporarily interrupted because articulation in the final analysis means smooth progress toward objectives.

The statement in the preceding paragraph that "learning will occur" is particularly important. Learning is a continuous process. One could not stop it if he tried—short of causing the death of the individual. If a pupil does not learn what the teacher intends, he *will* learn something else. For example, if he is asked to study a subject for which he sees no need, he will probably be very susceptible to distractions and mind-wandering during study periods and classes in the subject. Such distractions and mind-wandering would represent interruption in the continuity of learning experiences as far as the subject at hand is concerned. Additionally, since some kind of need satisfaction is going on most of the time (possibly even pleasure derived from annoying the teacher), the behavior patterns elicited by the distractions and mind-wandering could quite possibly be reinforced. This means that not only would there be lack of continuity in learning experiences as far as the school objectives are concerned; there *would* be continuity in learning bad study habits and possibly other undesirable patterns of behavior.

The added point about the influence of needs on perception and hence on learning is important to articulation because, to provide good articulation, we must take into account the child's needs and the way he is likely to perceive learning situations. No matter how well a series of learning activities is put together in terms of other considerations, these activities will not have the desired effect if the individual perceives the situation to be vastly different from what was intended. An illustration might be a case in which a teacher gives a student more than usual freedom to plan and conduct his own study, so as to learn independent study habits. If the student, not being ready to take this responsibility, perceives it as an opportunity to escape work or to day dream, the result could be quite different from that which was planned.

It is very important that the needs of students be considered in planning for effective learning experiences and for good articulation among the experiences, because the child's needs are the wellsprings of all

activity from which learning can result. If these basic facts about how learning takes place are not properly applied by the teacher, learning is likely to be haphazard and seldom in accord with the objectives of instruction. This would represent poor articulation.

Motives and Goals in Learning

*"... Learning is best motivated by goals established or accepted by the learner as a result of his needs."*⁶

The explanation of the preceding principle helps in understanding this one. What the student learns, he learns as a result of pursuing goals that he believes will satisfy his needs. The motivation arises from his desire to achieve the goal. Thus learning cannot occur without motivation any more than it can occur independently of the learner's needs.

The strongest motivation is that which exists when the student perceives the desired learning outcome as a means of satisfying his needs, i. e., when he personally values what is to be learned. For example, a student in a rural school may have a strong desire to produce a champion milk cow—perhaps in order to start his own herd. His study of books on dairy farming would not, therefore, be viewed merely as an assignment which must be done for a satisfactory mark; this reading is something he wants to do because it is important to him.

Other forms of motivation may be equal in intensity to that described above. Through a desire for high marks, or to please the teacher or the parents, or to win in competition, students sometimes make tremendous efforts to learn, and do learn quite effectively. Although this type of motivation sometimes may be all the teacher has to depend upon, it does have certain drawbacks. The most important is that once the inducements of the competition, the marks or other incentives are removed, the motivation is likely to be lost. On the other hand, when the child considers the learning important to him personally, he is likely to continue studying and learning about the matter even after formal instruction on it has ended.

The problem of maintaining motivation on the part of pupils is difficult. Much effort and ingenuity are required of the worker in overcoming the almost inevitable frustrations of pupils that occur in daily classroom learning. One of the most valuable techniques in this connection is teacher-pupil planning with regard to what is to be learned

⁶ George W. Hartmann. "The Field Theory of Learning and Its Educational Consequences." *The Psychology of Learning*. Forty-First Yearbook, Part II, Nelson B. Henry, editor. National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942. p. 206.

and how it is to be learned. To the extent that pupils are allowed to participate in the determination of what is to be learned next, and allowed also to help choose the learning activities, the needs of the child will provide effective motivation to achieve the learning objectives decided upon. Contrariwise, the more the teacher decides arbitrarily what is to be done and how it is to be done without talking it through with the pupils, the more are artificial incentives likely to be required to keep the pupils at the learning task. (Chapter 9 treats more fully the topic of self-selection of learning experiences.)

This principle is importantly related to articulation, because there cannot be smooth progress toward objectives through the various school levels unless the pupil is well motivated. Good articulation requires that the learner be motivated to achieve educational objectives. Breaks in the continuity of learning can occur just as readily because the student loses interest as it can from causes such as illness, vacations, differences in teaching methods, and so forth. Many of the cases of "drop-outs" in high school are no doubt a result of loss of motivation toward school goals.

Repetition, or Recurrent Experiences, and the Learning Process

*"Repetition is an important condition of learning. It is essential for the progressive modification of the psychological functions. To be effective, however, repetition must be accompanied by other essential ingredients in the learning process. Without attention, interest, meaning, and a goal, repetition is apt to be useless."*¹

This does not mean that repetition is necessary for all learning. A person is often able to remember a name after hearing it only once. Single experiences are sometimes remembered the rest of one's life. However, much of the important learning in school requires more than a single exposure. This is particularly true for acquiring complex skills like reading and handwriting, and understanding complex ideas like *representative government*.

An additional ingredient needed for repetition to be effective is knowledge of results. Practice alone without knowledge of results cannot be expected to bring about improvement. In fact, practice under such conditions is as likely to result in reinforcement of mistakes as it is to result in improvement.

Although the word repetition is used in the wording of this principle, this should not be taken necessarily to imply uniform repetition. Most

¹ Howard L. Kingsley. *The Nature and Conditions of Learning*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., copyright 1946. (Reprinted with their permission.) p. 75.

concepts can be expressed in a variety of ways. Moreover, they can be *applied* in a variety of ways. Teachers can and should provide a variety of ways for pupils to experience a concept. For example, a student is learning the concept, $3 + 4 = 7$. Many experiences should be provided for him to combine three objects with four more objects. Thus he will see that a group of 3 and a group of 4, when put together, make a new group of 7. Sometimes these objects might be pieces of chalk, sometimes pennies, or blocks of wood. To provide further variety, these experiences of number concepts can take place in a variety of situations. Sometimes the concept may be experienced in connection with playing store; at other times in connection with distributing materials to pupils; at still other times in practice situations where students test each other on the concepts in terms of both knowing the answers and of knowing how to demonstrate properly their meanings with objects.

This point applies with equal importance to other areas of school learning. An illustration is in the teaching of the parts of speech. Nouns, for example, may be identified by the student in terms of their function in many different sentences in both his own and other writing. Such an approach will help the child understand what a noun is, by showing what it does, and without the necessity of monotonous drill exercises.

Usually a single exposure or experience is not sufficient for most learnings in school. This principle emphasizing the need for repetition, therefore, has important implications for articulation. For smooth articulation the sequence of activities must be planned so there will be sufficient repetition of similar experiences for adequate thoroughness and permanence of learning. Otherwise, the child will fail to obtain the mastery of material needed for later learning. For example, a child needs to experience many situations in which he can learn and apply social skills, such as making introductions. The sequence of the experiences should be such that they require the student to practice only those aspects of the skill that he is actually able to execute at the time, and to concentrate on those which represent improvements over past performance.

Multiple Learning Outcomes

Learning experiences planned for a particular objective often result in a variety of learning outcomes.

School activities often result in more than a single outcome or in something different from what the teacher expected. In studying American history, for example, the student is learning more than history. He is learning to like, or to dislike, history. He may be learning either

good or poor study habits. He may be learning that history is either easy or hard for him. He is possibly learning to read better also. New vocabulary is probably being acquired. Possibly attitudes toward the American system of government are being formed. He is likely to be developing a belief that history is, or is not, an important field of study.

It would be easy to add to this list; very similar examples could be drawn from any aspect of the child's learning in school. Suffice it to say that since there are many facets to all school learning situations—the place, the materials, what the teacher is doing, what other children are doing, distractions present—and since the needs and interests of the child have many aspects, there are varied ways in which a child can react, and learn, in these situations.

Therefore, it follows that neither efficient learning nor adequate continuity of learning experiences can occur if the plan of approach is to achieve one specific objective at a time. Rather, the teacher should keep in mind the full scope of objectives he is trying to achieve, and even though the focus of a learning experience may be on a particular objective, he should be alert for opportunities to facilitate achievement of other purposes of the school by means of the same learning experience. For example, students working on group projects can be helped to learn how to get along with people at the same time they are accomplishing the primary purpose of the project.

Articulation or continuity of learning experiences must be thought of in terms of many concurrent aspects of each successive experience, rather than in terms of a simple series of limited experiences focused on single limited objectives.

Effects of Emotional Upsets or Anxiety on Learning

*“ . . . Disruptive emotional experiences upset health, decrease intellectual efficiency, and create attitudes interfering with effective work. . . . The emotionally upset pupil can hardly be an effective learner. Even brief and relatively superficial episodes of emotional shock startle and break up any consistent attack upon a problem of learning.”*⁸

It is significant to note in this connection that the responses of pupils reported in Part One of this yearbook frequently mentioned articulation situations centering on teacher behavior. In fact, 18.8% of the responses were so classified, as shown in Graph I, page 21. Many of these accounts submitted by the children indicated that the teacher's behavior upset them and thereby made it difficult for them to learn. The following

⁸ Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson. *Psychology and the New Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944. p. 424.

example reported by a thirteen year old girl is admittedly rather extreme, but there were several more of the same kind:

"When I was at another school about the third grade I was about twenty minutes late and my teacher put me in a closet and hit me with a ruler. And she made me sit in a corner, and put my nose in a circle on the blackboard. After that she was just mean to me. I just hated her."

It should not be necessary to say that this was conduct unbecoming a teacher. Yet it was reported as fact, and the number of similar reports seems to indicate that such incidents do happen. Surely such experiences for a little girl would be disturbing to the point of interfering seriously with her school learning. Continuing over a period of time, they could permanently cripple her potentiality for school learning as well as endanger her mental health.

Emotional disturbances need not be as intense as those reported by this little girl to interfere with school learning. Nor is such interference limited to the younger school children. A child can be upset because another teased him at recess. A boy can be upset because a girl would not accept his invitation to go to a school dance. A girl may be having trouble with her school work because she is ashamed of her dress and keeps thinking about it instead of studying.

It is clear that learning progress toward the objectives of the school can be smooth and uninterrupted only when the child is sufficiently free from emotional disturbances. The school must, therefore, do what it can to prevent the occurrence of upsetting incidents and must, insofar as advisable, help the child (within the capabilities of its personnel) to resolve normal emotional difficulties, regardless of their origin. Even though the source of the disturbance may be in the home or elsewhere outside the school, it is well that the school be aware of such difficulty and do what it can do to alleviate the condition. To fail to do so will almost certainly mean reduced effectiveness in learning on the child's part, regardless of the excellence of the instructional methods used.

Good articulation goes beyond administrative arrangements, good courses of study, and teachers who are competent in teaching subject matter. It requires good emotional adjustment on the part of the child. Emotional disturbances will break up continuity of school learning that might otherwise be quite satisfactory in this respect.

The Forgetting Process

Many generalizations may be found in the research on forgetting. Three of these which are especially pertinent to articulation and continuity of learning experiences will be developed here.

The first is a principle on the time when forgetting is most rapid: "*. . . the rate of forgetting is most rapid immediately following learning and tends to slow up for what remains as the interval lengthens.*"^o

This means that unless something is done to prevent loss soon after the student acquires new learning, much that is seemingly learned may be forgotten. This is the point at which reviews are most helpful.

Closely related to this principle is another: *People tend to forget what they learn but do not use.* To learn something long before it is needed with the intent of storing it away until a need for it arises is inefficient. It will usually be found that these things must be largely relearned at the time one wants to use them.

Both of these principles of forgetting imply that for good articulation it is important to plan school activities so that reinforcement for newly acquired learning is provided on a continuing basis without large gaps. This requires more than an occasional review. Instead, the sequence of activities should fit together in an integrated pattern, so that new concepts build upon old, making the new learning in part a review of the old.

A familiar example of this is the way arithmetic is taught. Here it is quite obvious that, in learning addition and subtraction, the student will necessarily give attention to and thereby reinforce previously learned number concepts. Then, in learning multiplication and division, the student will necessarily get additional practice in addition and subtraction and again expand his understanding of number concepts. If relationships among fundamental processes are properly emphasized in the teaching of arithmetic, the effects of forgetting will be minimized, and the likelihood of serious breaks in the continuity of learning will likewise be lessened. Although not so obviously as in the area of arithmetic, the same reasoning applies to virtually all areas of school learning.

A third principle on forgetting has to do with a process involving interference from new learning on the retention of what was previously learned, known as "retroactive inhibition." *Many factors influence the amount of forgetting resulting from retroactive inhibition. One is degree of learning: the more thorough the learning, the less susceptible it will be to interference.* Another is previous experience related to what is learned: the richer the previous experience the less the interference. Still another is meaningfulness or the organization of the student's concepts or skills related to the learning: the more meaningful the material learned the less will be the interference; the greater the organi-

^o Howard L. Kingsley, *op. cit.*, p. 463.

zation the less will be the interference.¹⁰ There are other factors in addition to those above that influence the amount of retroactive inhibition, but they are not directly pertinent to the problems of articulation under study in this yearbook.

To reduce forgetting would be a great saver of time and energies, both for learners and for teachers. To reduce forgetting is also an avenue to facilitating smooth progress, continuity of learning experiences, and good articulation. In the light of the above generalizations about interference with retention, what should teachers do? They should stress thoroughness in learning rather than the giving of shallow attention to many topics; they should make every effort to help children see meaning in what they learn; and they should help the learners organize what they learn in terms of patterns of relationships. Meaningfulness is as important in preventing forgetting as it is in aiding original learning or in providing adequate readiness for learning.

Psychologists take the view that disuse does not *cause* forgetting; it merely provides opportunity for forgetting to take place. Since retroactive inhibition (interference of later learning with the recall of earlier learning) seems to be the main cause of normal forgetting,¹¹ the generalizations stated above about retroactive inhibition provide at least a partial explanation as to why forgetting takes place during disuse. As an illustration, a boy in school learns certain forms for writing business letters. During the summer vacation he is busy about many other things, including a job in an office where he occasionally types a letter for his employer according to a somewhat different form than that prescribed by his English teacher in school. His learning of the new form during a period of lack of use of the earlier form will interfere with his recall of the earlier form. That fall, if he has the same teacher and writes business letters in her class, he may have forgotten last year's form—*during* disuse but *because* of interference of his later learning.

Transfer of Learning

One of the most popular topics for research in learning has been the conditions under which learning acquired in one situation will transfer to other situations. Transfer is said to occur if something learned in one situation is used to help a person deal with a situation, solve a problem, or learn something new in a later situation.

There are many details in the theories and research findings on

¹⁰ Adapted by permission from *The Nature and Conditions of Learning* by Howard L. Kingsley. Copyright, 1946 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N. J. p. 219-36.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 473.

transfer that can be found in any good text on educational psychology. The basic concept growing out of these studies is as follows: "*Transfer is at a maximum when old learning and the new problem situation are interrelated because of common or similar elements, components, factors, stimuli, or relations, or when they require common or similar skills, sets, attitudes, knowledge, appreciation, or other response patterns.*"¹²

An implication of this statement for teaching is that, for maximum transfer, learning should be acquired in situations which are, as much as possible, like those to which the learning is expected to transfer. For example, if it is desired that the English usage taught in school will transfer to actual letter writing, letter writing should be used frequently in the learning experiences. Another example is in science teaching. If it is desired that what is learned in science class will transfer to actual applications in everyday living, the principles of science should be taught in considerable part within a setting of problems in everyday living. Best of all, if the class can actually go out into the community and learn the methods of science by studying actual, practical problems, the conditions for transfer will be most favorable.

In these examples, as in others, the transfer is not limited to overt physical responses; perceptions and generalizations also can transfer. Perceptions can transfer in the form of recognition of situations in which certain patterns of behavior are appropriate. In many cases transfer is possible because a generalization learned in one situation was applied in another, as is the case when a scientific principle learned in the study of a physical science is applied to a problem in the social sciences.

Meaningfulness is again important, this time in connection with transfer. The more meaningful the material to be learned is to the learner, the greater is the likelihood of transfer. The more a person sees relationships in what he has learned, the more possibilities there will be for seeing relationships between what is learned and new situations to which transfer is expected.

Motivation is also important in transfer. The more the student *wants* to apply what he learns to new situations he encounters, the more likely transfer is to occur.

Yet transfer does not occur automatically. The teacher should provide conditions favorable to transfer by applying the above principles in planning and guiding the learning activities of pupils. Students should also contribute to the process by seeking out the implications

¹² G. L. Anderson and A. I. Gates, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

and possible uses of what they are learning. In other words, teachers should teach for transfer and students should study for transfer.

Since transfer is not automatic, teachers and learners will do well to consider carefully and rather explicitly the ways in which, and the situations to which, school learning is expected to transfer. High school teachers are familiar with the "so what's" of adolescents. The young people ask, "Why should I learn this? When and where will I ever use it?" They are really asking to what future situation the learning will transfer as a meaningful skill or in what way it will serve as useful information. Sometimes the expected transfer is to another school situation; sometimes to an out-of-school use. Though neither students nor teachers can foresee all the possible future applications of present learnings, no one can deny that a complete statement of learning objectives should include consideration of transfer situations and probable performance expected of students in those situations.

Effects of transfer can be negative as well as positive. An excellent example is provided by the difficulties encountered by a person who starts driving an automobile with a standard shift after he has driven a model with automatic shift over a long period of time. Many of the habits carried over are inappropriate for the standard shift. An example in school learning is that the skill of rapid reading, which is the goal of much reading instruction, does not work very well when the student encounters written problems in arithmetic or science. A more analytical kind of reading is required. The conclusion that follows is not, of course, that a student should be discouraged from developing the skill of rapid reading, but that he should develop a flexibility of speed and manner of reading which helps him adjust his performance to fit different kinds of reading material and different purposes for reading it.

There is also an implication of negative transfer for articulation. School personnel should be alert to the possibility of the occurrence of negative transfer, for when it does occur it may interrupt the smooth progress of learning. Investigations of the causes of poor articulation in a specific school may sometimes reveal a case of negative transfer to be one of the causes of the trouble.

The general implication of the facts of transfer for articulation is that for transfer to occur there must be good articulation between the learning activities and the activities to which the learning is expected to transfer. There should be no large gaps between the learning situation and the transfer situation in the form of missing information, necessary but unmastered concepts, lack of orientation to important features of the new situation, and so forth. Since it is obviously desirable to have

school learning transfer to later school learning, this means also that there should be unifying threads of similar experiences which run through all levels of the educational program. When students complain (as many did in the responses analyzed in Part One) that they arrived at a new school or a new school level with an intense feeling of strangeness, of anxiety about what was going to happen, and of not knowing what to do next, it is clear that such continuity of similar experiences is not being provided adequately.

The conclusion follows that there should not be sharp shifts in the methods of teaching or other aspects of the learning program at the junctures between the various educational levels (kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school). A closely related matter is that the general or ultimate purposes of education should be essentially the same for each of these levels. This latter point is developed further in Chapter 8.

Individual Differences in Learning

The next principle of learning relates to each of the preceding statements on the learning process. It is that *differences are inevitably found among people with regard to every human characteristic involved in the learning process*. A teacher of a class composed of a number of students can be certain that in the class there will be great differences among students in a wide variety of characteristics. These differences are of great practical significance as to when various individuals are ready for various learning tasks. There will be differences in needs and interests which will profoundly affect what they learn in class and how rapidly they learn it. There will be differences in the meanings that various activities and ideas have for different students. Some will see easily the meaning in what is to be learned; others may not see it at all or may see a different meaning. Students will vary as to the amount of repetition or variety of recurrent experiences required for a given level of mastery. The phenomenon of multiple learning is such that the multiple outcomes for different students are likely to vary. The emotional makeup of each child is different, which means that for each child the effects of emotion on learning will be different. Different pupils forget different things and some forget more rapidly than others. For some, transfer of learning comes easily and for others it is most difficult. Finally, as if all this were not enough, some pupils are brighter than others, resulting in vast differences in the rate at which they learn, and also differences in what they are able to learn and how they recognize opportunities for transfer.

The following statements in the students' own words (obtained from

the research material of Part One) indicate both the nature and the seriousness of the problem. Each statement is by a different child.

"I entered kindergarten at age 4½. My mother said that tests given rated me with a 130 I.Q., so I was allowed to enroll. Being a ½ and 1 year younger than the other children has been with me all through school, although I was always at the top of the class. Since I was younger, Mother always talked to the teachers to see if I was progressing as I should. As I said before, I've gone through with no real companionship."

"When I started to school I couldn't talk plain at all. My first grade teacher . . . stayed after school with me every night and helped me with my pronunciation of words and by the end of the year I could talk fairly well. I have found that this has helped me tremendously in all my school work and social life."

"One of my hardest years was when I was in the first grade. My teacher didn't seem to like me. My main problem was in reading. My teacher put me as one of the lowest readers. She didn't help me with my problem. Then I was in a car wreck. I was in the hospital for two weeks. During that time my mother who taught first grade for five years taught me how to read. When I finally got back to school I was way ahead of the others so my teacher told me to stop reading. I did and it made my mother mad. I think that was my unhappiest year in school."

" . . . Other things that I believe were not right was having to go to school and be in classes with those who were rather slow in learning and so have held back the rest of the class. . . ."

"When I started high school in the other school I found that I was very far behind. It took months to catch up and actually I don't think I ever did. This brought my grades so far down that I have been mixed up all year."

" . . . In high school I had no trouble making A's in most of my subjects, especially my last two years. I found I could make A's without studying too much, so I just fluffed my way through. . . . Later I found I could not do the same. I really had to crack down and study. I was not accustomed to do this, so I had a hard time making adjustment."

Differences in ability and achievement like these will be found even though the students receive the same instruction. Even if it were possible for all the students to enter a grade in school at the same level of achievement, they would not finish the year at the same level. This fact makes it inevitable that the new students entering a teacher's room at the beginning of a year will represent great variations in level of previous achievement in spite of their identical grade placement.

As an illustration,¹³ a typical fifth grade class can be expected to

¹³ Hollis L. Caswell and Arthur W. Foshay. *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Co., 1957. p. 108-109.

range from the second or third grade level to the senior high school level in all or nearly all school subjects. In a few cases even greater differences will be found. This means that in a fifth grade class in reading, for example, some pupils will be achieving at the second or third grade level and others up to adult level.

If the instruction given in such classes is pitched strictly at the fourth grade level, it will be too advanced for the slower students and too elementary for the better students. If the teacher were to succeed in getting the pupils to progress together at the same rate, it could mean only that he is serving as a damper on the learning potentiality of the class, particularly of the abler students. He would also likely be causing undesirable tension among those who learn more slowly. With proper conditions for learning, the brighter students *should* learn faster than the slow, enabling them to advance further and further ahead of the slower ones.

The following oversimplified and formalized example may help clarify the point. A very bright child might be able to progress through each grade in half the usual time. A very slow learning child might, on the other hand, require two years for each grade. If these two children started together in the first grade, the bright one would be one and one-half grade levels ahead of the other at the end of the first year. At the end of two years the bright child would be three grade levels ahead. At the end of three years he would be four and one-half grade levels ahead. At the end of four years he would be six grade levels ahead, and so forth.

Although the foregoing example is based on the progress of pupils from grade to grade, it should be noted that the point applies with equal importance in day-to-day learning. The bright students should get further and further ahead of the slower ones as the school term progresses. By midterm a bright student should easily advance a full half-year ahead of a slow learner, even though they were together at the start. It follows, therefore, that no attempt should be made to blame these wide differences on the ills of "social promotion."

Some teachers will object to the implications of these facts. They will insist that it is impossible from a practical standpoint to let each child go at his own pace. Although this argument may seem undeniable, the fact of differences among children remains. No matter what scheme is used for promoting pupils from grade to grade, and no matter what efforts are made to section them off in homogeneous groups, differences of this kind will persist. In this day and age of critical need for talented individuals, the nation can ill afford the luxury of accepting the "solution" of holding brighter students down to the pace of their less able

classmates. Every opportunity must be utilized to foster their optimum development. On the other hand, the less able students have much need for what they can learn in school. Their time must not be wasted or their emotional adjustment must not be threatened by being forced to spend their school days trying to keep up with the average of the class.

We realize that this presents the teacher with what may seem like an impossible task: that of helping a roomful of students achieve learning tasks with each student starting at a different level of attainment in many areas and with still greater diversity to follow. Yet difficult as this is, it is no more impossible than to try to teach a class *effectively* on the assumption that they must stay together, for this goal is truly impossible. The "impossibility" of providing adequately for individual differences is one of the greatest challenges for the teacher. Yet in view of what is at stake, it is a magnificent challenge.

Similarity of Learning at Various Age Levels

Lest there be confusion on the point, it should be noted that the preceding principles apply at all ages. For example, the matter of readiness merits attention at late elementary and high school levels as well as in kindergarten and first grade. The needs of the learner are as vital in adult learning as at school ages. Although they have some differences, both children and adults have many of the same types of needs. All have a need for a feeling of belonging. Both need a sense of personal worth. All need a sense of security.

Proceeding in a similar fashion, it could be shown that all of the above principles of learning are principles for all age and school levels. This should be expected because, after all, each is a principle of *human* learning.

Since learning takes place by the same process at all levels, the same basic approach to educational methodology applies at all levels, with appropriate adjustments to differences in maturity. It is therefore inappropriate to think of different educational levels as representing essentially different types of educative processes. For example, recitation should not be characterized as a method for the elementary school, with group discussion suitable primarily for later levels. Nor should it be assumed that teaching for meaning and understanding is mainly for older age levels. Children can acquire deeper understandings and more ability to reason than many people realize. Childhood need not, therefore, be considered the "age of memory," with more complex learning reserved for later years.

This principle has a bearing on articulation because some people

appear to believe, mistakenly, that there are fundamental differences in the way elementary school pupils learn as compared to high school students. Believing this, they assume that the teaching, and sometimes the objectives, too, should be basically different at the two levels. When this practice is followed, students are likely to encounter sharp differences as they move from one level to the next, making the problem of adjustment unnecessarily difficult. Selecting a teaching method or designing a learning experience should be based on the objectives of instruction, what is known about the students, what is known about how learning takes place, the teacher's capabilities, and the facilities available rather than on preconceived notions about the school levels to which various methods or activities belong.

Chapter Summary

This chapter relates present day knowledge of human growth, development and learning to articulation. First, the following selected principles of growth and development were set forth with an analysis of their implications for problems of articulation:

1. Knowledge of patterns of physical growth is essential. These patterns are pertinent to articulation because physical activities or physical characteristics of the child are so often involved in school learning.
2. Various social factors, such as the family, social class structure, peer groups, church, clubs, camps, mass media, and so forth, influence individual development. School personnel must select objectives and plan learning experiences so there will be articulation, not only from level to level in school, but also between the school and all of these agents which have important effects on the child's living.
3. Many aspects of human growth are closely and dynamically inter-related within the individual personality. They may be grouped in the following categories: intellectual, physical, social, and emotional. Thus articulation must occur on many fronts concurrently. Each of these aspects of growth is continuous. Bodily changes are taking place all the time. New patterns of behavior are continually emerging. Good articulation requires careful attention to these changing patterns in the individual child when planning school activities.

Next, several selected principles of learning were presented. The following generalizations were formulated regarding their relation to articulation:

1. Readiness for learning is a prime consideration in determining the sequence of learning activities. Unless the child is ready to learn what he is asked to learn in school, he will fail to learn what is expected, with consequent interruptions in the continuity of his learning.

2. Since the learner's needs are fundamental in the learning process, and hence in articulation, successive learning activities should be chosen in such manner that opportunities are provided for the learner to meet his needs.

3. Good articulation requires that the learner be motivated to achieve the educational objectives. Breaks in the continuity of learning can occur just as readily because the student loses interest as they can from causes such as illness, vacations or differences in teaching methods.

4. Since a single exposure or experience is not sufficient to assure the learning of many things now required in school, the sequence of activities must be planned so there will be sufficient opportunities for practice in a variety of situations.

5. Because many kinds of learning often result from a single learning experience planned for achieving a single learning outcome, articulation must be thought of in terms of complex concurrent series; not in terms of a single series.

6. Continuity of learning experiences requires more than adequate administrative arrangements, good courses of study, and having teachers who are competent in teaching subject matter. Good emotional adjustment on the part of the child is also required.

7. Reviews or other activities to reinforce learning must be provided to prevent faulty articulation because of forgetting. To reduce forgetting further, teachers should help students acquire high rather than low mastery of what is learned, to organize what they learn, and to recognize meanings and patterns of interrelationships.

8. For transfer of learning to occur there must be articulation between the learning experiences and the situations to which the learning is expected to transfer.

9. There are differences among children in all characteristics related to the learning process. It is most important, therefore, that continuity of learning experiences be planned with regard to the *individual* child. To plan activities on the assumption that the students in a given classroom are all alike will almost certainly result in gaps or overlaps which destroy the continuity of the experiences for many members of the class.

10. Learning takes place by the same process at all school levels, hence the same basic approach to educational methodology applies at all levels, with appropriate adjustments to differences in maturity levels.

Considering Educational Objectives

HOW PRINCIPLES of child growth, development and learning can be applied to improve school articulation has been treated in the preceding chapter. Equally important to proper articulation of children's school learning experiences are the objectives of educational programs. Such objectives give the direction that is implicit in the terms "articulation" and "continuity of learning experience." Desirable continuity among experiences can exist only as these lead cumulatively to a particular end result or objective. Objectives provide criteria of continuity. They are "touchstones" for a thoughtful study of articulation problems.

This chapter examines several principles relating to educational objectives. These principles provide part of a foundation for a general approach to problems of articulation. They also will be useful in analysis and evaluation of the specific practices related to articulation that are treated in Part Four. The principles presented do not give a comprehensive coverage of all aspects of development and use of educational objectives. Rather, the stated principles are those believed to be most directly related to problems of articulation.

A listing of objectives for kindergarten through Grade 12 is not given in the chapter. However, several references to such lists are provided. Many of the problems children and youth have in moving from school system to school system arise from differences in school objectives and in decisions as to curriculum content. While there is a temptation to try to overcome the difficulty by striving for uniformity of objectives in content, we cannot resort to any such answer. The problem must be worked on in a number of ways, some of which are discussed here.

Need for Clear and Specific Objectives

If educational objectives are important, as is indicated above, it is well that they be stated clearly and in terms of function.

To be useful, objectives must serve as guides for the teacher-pupil activities aimed at accomplishing the purposes of the school. They should also provide a basis for evaluation. Objectives must be prepared not only with sufficient clarity but also with sufficient specificity if they are to provide this guidance. Broadly generalized objectives such as, "Pupils should acquire knowledge, values and abilities that will help them to live lives that are individually satisfying and socially effective," may provide a general frame of reference, but are so broad that they offer almost no guidance for day-to-day activities in the classroom. A more specifically worded objective is, "The student should develop an ability to critically evaluate popular beliefs about health."

Excessive specificity is not to be desired either. Long lists of highly specific objectives are cumbersome to work with. They cannot provide functional guidance if they are so detailed that the teacher cannot keep them in mind in planning and conducting learning experiences. A suggestion as to how objectives may be formulated is given below.

A first principle can be stated as follows: *Educational objectives must be well formulated in order effectively to plan, conduct and improve the school program. These objectives should be stated clearly and specifically so they can provide guidance in designing and conducting learning experiences and in evaluating student achievement.* This principle is related to articulation because, for continuity, learning experiences must be put together so that they lead to something. As Tyler¹ puts it, they should have a maximum cumulative effect. Such a sequence of experiences can hardly be rationally determined unless the planners know what the experiences are leading to—what is the intended cumulative effect. This sequence becomes clear only as the educational purposes and their relationships to planned activities which support them are made clear.

How Objectives Are Formulated

To clarify the formulation of objectives it is important to recognize both the needs of the individual and those of society.

On page 68 of Chapter 5 it is pointed out that pupils' reports of articulation situations often make reference to the importance of human relations. The data there show that 34.6% of the stated or implied causes of pupil reactions to articulation situations involved the child's relation to other people and clearly reflect children's need for skill in developing and maintaining pleasant and satisfying personal relation-

¹ Ralph W. Tyler. *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. Education 360 Syllabus. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950. p. 54.

ships. The responses show that failure to meet this need for skill in human relations leads to a breakdown of articulation and to impediments to accomplishing the objectives of the school. For example, in classes where the pupils have not yet learned to get along with each other, there are likely to be many disturbances which interfere with progress toward both the teachers' and learners' goals. Needs such as this provide one of the bases for formulating objectives of the school.

Another evidence of a pupil need which points to a possible educational objective is the presence in Table 2 (Chapter 5) of these two causes of student reactions: "orientation to building and program" and "lack of orientation to building and program." Schools might very well build some objectives for new enrollees around this need of pupils for orientation to the building and program. To fail to do so is likely to result, temporarily at least, in poor adjustment of new pupils to the school situation, culminating in interruptions of the continuity of pupils' learning experiences, and ultimately in reduced effectiveness toward accomplishing the objectives of the school.

The effect of inadequate orientation on accomplishing stated objectives was emphasized by one student as follows:

"Another time that was difficult is when I moved from a city where I had lived all of my life. When I walked in school for the first time I felt very strange and lonely. I didn't know one single person and because of that I was slow to catch up on my work. The new school was three times as large as the one which I came from."

Needs of society are also sources of school objectives. For example, a democratic society requires that a citizen know well, among other things, the workings of the government. Since this need is not met adequately by other social institutions, the school should endeavor to help the students acquire understanding in this area.

Although the needs of the individual and the needs of society comprise the fundamental basis for formulating objectives, another source of ideas for objectives should not be neglected. Experts in various areas are likely to be better able than most teachers to perceive relationships of school objectives to needs of the individual and of society which fall in the expert's area of specialization. For example, an expert in American government could no doubt be of considerable assistance in formulating important objectives to meet the need of society mentioned in the foregoing paragraph. As another example, an expert in child growth and development should be able to provide valuable help in formulating objectives to meet the needs of individuals at various age levels.

Further details on formulation of objectives can be found in various sources such as the works of Tyler² and Bloom.³

A second principle follows from the preceding analysis and may be stated in this way: *Educational objectives should be formulated by translating the needs of the learner and the needs of society into desired outcomes of the learning process.* The most important implication of this principle for articulation is that if objectives do reflect the actual needs of students, learning experiences properly designed for attainment of the objectives will almost of necessity be closely linked to the experience and stage of readiness of the child. This is true because a felt need represents a gap between the state of affairs as they are and as the child would like them to be. Hence, as long as the learning experiences are related to the felt needs of the child, it is impossible for the experiences to be out of touch with the child's present psychological orientation.

Similarly, if learning experiences of school children are directed toward objectives which fit the needs of society, continuity of in-school and out-of-school experience is likely to be improved. Also, present experiences in school will then help the learner make a smoother transition to his future out-of-school affairs.

Important Relationships Among Objectives

The three principles that follow all stress relationships among objectives. These relationships are between objectives and prerequisite objectives, among objectives at different school levels, and among objectives for the different subject matter areas.

Prerequisite Objectives

Graph I in Chapter 2 on the study of student responses shows that the most frequently mentioned situation bearing on good or poor articulation was "moving to a new school community." Another situation frequently mentioned was "moving to a new school level" in the same community.

One reason for problems of articulation in connection with moving to a new school community and moving to a new level is that there often is either a gap or an overlap between the objectives of the new school and the former one. A fourteen year old student described the problem in these words:

² *Ibid.*, p. 3-40.

³ Benjamin S. Bloom, editor. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, the Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1956.

"Whenever I have had to transfer from school to school in the middle of the year I have always been either extremely ahead of classes or extremely behind or sometimes have not even had that class."

A fifteen year old described a similar problem:

"Something which was very difficult was when I received a bad grade in math and learned nothing; then when I went on to the next grade I was way behind and could not understand other and more difficult problems."

As illustrated in this testimony of students, the child starting his work at a new school is often expected to learn material for which he is not ready. The differences in objectives, or differences in expectations of the schools for attaining them, often leave the child without mastery of concepts essential to understanding the material offered at the new school or at the new grade level.

Excessive overlap in objectives would be likely to cause difficulties also, because if the child is required to cover a second time material he has previously mastered, boredom and reduction of motivation are likely to result.

Attainment of prerequisite objectives may be stressed more in some areas, such as mathematics and science, than in others. For instance, it would be most difficult to teach a child to understand the process of long division if he had not first learned the real meanings of simple division facts. The relation of objectives and prerequisite objectives should not be overlooked in other areas, however. An example is the greater ease with which children learn to read if they have an easy control of oral language. Similarly, in social studies the student must know many things about the peoples and cultures of nations before he can profitably study problems in international relations. However, this development of the principle of prerequisite objectives should not be taken to imply there is always a rigid sequence to be followed.

This third principle may be stated as follows: *Achievement of objectives often requires prior attainment of prerequisite objectives; hence the objectives selected for the learner to attain must be realistic in terms of his previous attainments and experiences.* The primary relationship of this principle to articulation problems is that the child cannot perceive continuity in learning experiences if he is asked to learn something for which he has inadequate background. He must attain needed concepts and skills before he is expected to acquire new concepts or skills that build upon them.

Objectives at Different School Levels

Several of the research findings reported in Part One point up the importance of a close relationship among objectives at successive school

levels. For instance, there is the emphasis placed upon difficulties arising when the child moves to the next higher school level, e.g., from elementary school to junior high school. Or we might cite the attention given by pupils to differences in curriculum, which were often differences associated with varying expectations in a curriculum area at successive levels. Among the causes of their reactions, children often mentioned or implied fear of the unknown, another indication of uncertainty as to what will be expected at the next level.

There should be a basic unity of objectives from the kindergarten through Grade 12. The ultimate objectives are essentially the same at all levels. Many of the articulation difficulties faced by pupils might be lessened or removed if proper recognition were given to this basic concept. Perhaps, for example, there would be fewer adjustment problems for pupils if teachers and school officials fully understood the basic similarity and interrelationships of objectives at *all* levels from kindergarten through Grade 12. Similarly, difficulties due to reported differences in curriculum may be partly due to the fact that these differences are unnecessarily exaggerated by school personnel who mistakenly believe there should be fundamental differences in the purposes of schools at different levels.

An explanation is necessary as to *why* there should be a basic unity among objectives at the various levels. Although determination of objectives is in the final analysis an act of making value judgments, it is primarily for psychological reasons that objectives should have a common unity at all levels through Grade 12. One reason is that several successive levels of education are needed to achieve most of the important school objectives. A child can hardly be taught to read adequately in one isolated block of instruction at one level; nor can he acquire all the mathematical skills or the health habits he will need through efforts at any one school level. Appropriate aspects of these learning tasks must be related to the program in kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school for adequate attainment of objectives. Some of the same objectives and kinds of instruction might well be continued at the college level, but that discussion is beyond the scope of this book.

Another important reason why there should be basic unity among objectives is that forgetting tends to occur more rapidly under conditions of disuse. For most school learning, reviews or reinforcement in some form are needed to insure sufficient retention. Such reviews need not be repetitious for pupils. They can be in the form of applications of concepts previously learned, or varied illustrations of principles. If an attempt is not made throughout the various levels to foster continued

progress toward objectives, forgetting is likely to negate many attainments realized at various earlier points in the educational program. Other psychological principles could be cited to further establish the importance of unity of objectives, but the scope of this book does not permit a full development of all such principles.

Not only does logical and psychological analysis indicate that there *should* be a fundamental unity among objectives at all levels through Grade 12; a review of the literature shows that there actually *is* unity in stated objectives in most carefully planned curriculums for these levels. In fact, as statements of objectives developed for elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, and school systems are examined, the similarity of the statements is impressive. It is somewhat difficult, if not impossible, to find a statement of objectives at one level that does not have application at all levels. Oliver's list of objectives for small high schools has "Dignity of Labor" as one of the objectives.⁴ This particular objective is not usually found in listings for elementary schools. Yet, who will deny that it is a kind of objective emphasized in elementary school? Attaining objectives in elementary school relating to sharing work and responsibilities, respecting everyone as an individual, and learning about the contributions of people in all types of occupations fosters realization of this objective.

Findley's ultimate goals of education found in a journal of secondary education read much like the objectives of an elementary school.⁵ Similarly, the objectives of the Minneapolis Public School System make no distinction between one level of education and another.⁶

The city of San Diego, California, published in 1950 two curriculum guides, one for the elementary schools and one for the secondary schools.⁷ Each of these volumes contains more than 200 pages. One should note that the statements of objectives, listed in each publication under the title "This We Believe," are identical.

Although the preceding paragraphs stress the fundamental similarity of stated objectives from kindergarten through Grade 12, one should observe that there are certain differences at various levels, for obviously the instruction given in kindergarten is not the same as in high school.

⁴ Albert I. Oliver. "Basic Goals for Small High Schools: Theory and Practice." *The School Review* 58:458-67; November 1950. p. 458-67.

⁵ Warren G. Findley. "The Ultimate Goals of Education." *The School Review* 64:10-17; January 1956. p. 10-17.

⁶ Minneapolis Public Schools. *Achieving the Objectives of Education, A Guide for Curriculum Development*. Minneapolis: the Public School System, 1953.

⁷ San Diego, California, Public Schools. *Curriculum Guide for the Elementary Program and Curriculum Guide for the Secondary Program*. San Diego: the Public School System, 1950. 2 volumes.

One of these differences is a varying emphasis. As Otto, Floyd and Rouse express it:

This commonality of general purposes is an important fact for us to recognize. Along with this recognition, however, should come the realization that each segment of the school system has its particular contribution to make to these general goals, such contributions to be determined by the maturity of the age group served. The program whereby each unit in the school system makes its particular contribution determines the characteristics of that unit; it does not imply unique or different functions or purposes. A careful study of the list of objectives will show that some objectives are given greater stress at one school level than at another, but there are few, if any items in the list that do not receive some attention at all levels.*

An example of such a difference in emphasis is that of driver education. Formal instruction in driving automobiles is given in high school, but surely the efforts directed at safety education in kindergarten and elementary school make some contributions to the pupils' attainment of objectives in this area.

Another important variation in objectives at different levels is that the specific or immediate goals are likely to be quite different. The general purposes are the same, but differences in maturity and previous learning of the pupils require that children in the lower grades study for these purposes at lower levels of difficulty or complexity. For example, the language arts are taught in some form at all levels from kindergarten through most of the high school. However, specific reading objectives at the kindergarten level may include reading readiness, while instruction in high school is aimed at relatively advanced reading performance in interpreting a literary selection or seeking an answer to a question in chemistry.

This development of the relationships among stated objectives at various educational levels can be brought into focus with the following statement of a fourth principle and its relation to articulation problems: *Ultimate or general objectives are essentially the same at all levels from kindergarten through Grade 12. Important differences are found only in relative emphasis and in the immediate objectives for the various levels.* This principle relates to articulation problems because school people recognize that in practice some school programs at different levels are structured so as to magnify unduly for the child the differences from level to level, thus making it unnecessarily difficult for pupils to adjust to the situation when they move to a new level.

Schools at higher levels actually should begin where schools at the

* Henry J. Otto, Hazel Floyd, and Margaret Rouse. *Principles of Elementary Education*. New York: Rinehart & Company, 1955. p. 109-10.

preceding level leave off, and should have sufficient flexibility to adjust to the needs of the individual child. For this reason, teachers in the later grades must be familiar with what is learned in earlier grades. Otherwise, there will be either a gap or overlap between the previous attainments of the students and the objectives they are expected to achieve as they enter the higher educational levels. It is equally important for teachers in the early grades to understand the objectives sought in later grades so they can better help children to build readiness for the later levels.

Objectives in Different Subject Areas

The next chapter will emphasize the inadequacies of depending on organization of curricula on the basis of subject matter. Subject matter and the various subject disciplines will, however, still be importantly involved regardless of what organizational plan is used. Moreover, many school programs are now organized on a subject matter basis. It is necessary to develop a second principle on the unity of objectives—a unity growing out of relationships among subject areas.

As an illustration of these relationships, an examination of science, mathematics and social curriculums will usually reveal many similarities. Mathematics is used in studying many problems in science. Mathematics, being one of the sciences, employs many of the same principles taught in science courses. Many problems encountered in social studies classes require application of mathematical or scientific principles. These relationships among stated objectives extend also to other areas of the curriculum, such as art, music and English.

The importance of relationships among subject areas has received increasing emphasis in recent years. There have been some attempts to provide school programs which are more in accord with the implications of the nature of the relationships among subject areas. Instances of these attempts are: introduction of curricular and administrative changes such as the core curriculum, fewer and broader divisions of subject areas, and having the same instructor teach courses in related areas.

Recognition of such relationships is most important to achieving continuity of learning experiences in school. For example, if the study of a problem in a social studies class requires the pupils to reserve judgment until they can gather necessary data, they can probably do so much more easily if they have already practiced reserving judgment while they gathered data to solve a problem in science class. If they have had no prior experiences requiring reservation of judgment, the solution of the social studies problem is likely to appear very difficult

and frustrating. On the other hand, if instruction in related areas is carefully planned with this relationship in mind, the instruction in each area can reinforce or supplement that given in the other areas. If articulation is good, the student will see a definite connection between what he is doing in one class and what he has been doing in previous classes in the same subject *and in related courses*.

A fifth principle, recognizing relationships among subject areas, can be stated in this way: *Because of important relationships among many subject areas in the kindergarten through Grade 12, objectives involving various subject areas should be stated in such manner and accomplished in such a way that they reinforce and supplement each other as much as possible, and so that the relationships are readily perceived by the students.* To the extent that relationships of this kind are built into an educational program and clearly perceived by the pupils, learning will be easier. It will be easier because the learners will have better concepts and tools of analysis with which to attack problems in each area of study. Failure to provide properly for these relationships is apt to result in unnecessary incongruities between instruction in different subject areas, gaps and overlaps in instruction, and reduced efficiency in learning. To facilitate learning efficiency, learning products from various subject areas should be woven together into interrelated patterns which are more meaningful and more easily remembered than isolated details.

Objectives Related to Individual Differences

The next two principles relate to individual differences among learners. The first bears on different levels of attainment of objectives and the second on certain objectives which may be unique to a particular learner.

Differences in Attainment of Objectives

Learning will occur differently in different individuals by virtue of the very nature of the learning process and the learners. Students vary in time of readiness for particular learning tasks. They learn at different rates. From the very same learning activities they learn different things. Trying to keep a class together in achievement levels of either amount or quality of learning will not succeed.

Therefore, it is most important that teachers and school officials select immediate objectives that are realistic in terms of the actual attainments and abilities of the pupils rather than on the basis of what has been considered proper for a given grade level. Students in a particular class should not always be working toward the same immediate

objectives. Immediate objectives should be selected in terms of the development of the individual child, rather than on the basis of what is believed customary for the particular grade level.

For a more detailed development of the many ramifications of individual differences, with illustrations, see Chapter 7.

The implications of individual differences and degree of attainment as far as stated objectives are concerned can be summarized with the following statement of the sixth principle and its relation to articulation: *The levels of attainment of objectives for each student should be, qualitatively and quantitatively, those which are appropriate to each student, not those assumed to be appropriate for a mythical "average child."* The principle is related to articulation because continuity of learning experiences cannot exist except with reference to the experiences and development of the child. If the stated objectives and the learning experiences are inappropriate to the individual child, they can assist very little in improving continuity of learning experiences, no matter how proper the objectives and learning experiences appear to be for an average child at a particular grade level, and no matter how desirable it appears from an administrative viewpoint to have all students in a grade performing at the same level.

Importance of Objectives That Are Unique to the Child

The preceding chapter on child growth and learning makes clear that the *individual* development of each child is of great importance. Though one must recognize common threads among certain basic objectives for all pupils in school, he must not deny the existence of certain objectives that are unique for particular children. For example, if a boy becomes interested in electricity and has his heart set, temporarily at least, on becoming an electronics engineer, this interest should be encouraged. Moreover, as his interest takes him to the stage of wanting to build electric motors or short-wave radios, it would be highly desirable for the school to provide time, facilities and technical assistance. From the standpoint of articulation, it is most important that these resources be provided at the time the boy is interested in making use of them.

Another important dimension of articulation is, therefore, in the area of growth unique to the child. Children should be helped to develop new individual interests and to extend their present ones. They should begin to see relationships between their own particular interests and what they study in school. Libraries, laboratories, workshops and other facilities should be made available whenever possible to stimulate and further develop students' special interests.

Areas of individual interest should also be a concern of school personnel as the child leaves one school or educational level and enters another. The former teacher should pass information of this kind on to the new one, and efforts should be made at the new school or level to identify these interests, to encourage their continued development, and to make use of these in planning learning activities.

Some may contend that if educational objectives are properly conceived, areas of growth unique to the child will be incorporated in them—that growth toward the objectives and the unique growth will necessarily be woven together inseparably. This may be quite correct. One's concept of educational objectives and of child growth determines whether attainment of objectives and growth unique to the child are seen together or separately. Viewed in either way, the importance of areas of growth unique to the child must be recognized. The individuality of each child is a priceless thing, whether viewed from a philosophical or a practical standpoint. Suppression of individuality is antithetical to the democratic way of life; our nation urgently needs original thinkers.

A seventh principle expresses this concern regarding the individuality of the child: *Although stated objectives intended for all students to accomplish in some degree are important in an educational program, they do not encompass all the aspects of the child's development that should be included in the purposes of the school; the school should also foster growth in areas unique to each child.* The meaning of this principle for articulation is that it identifies another dimension in which articulation must occur. If it is important to have continuity in learning experiences intended for nurturing individual interests, then for the same reasons it is important to have continuity in learning experiences for attaining objectives. It is important that the child have appropriate encouragement, assistance and facilities for the development of individual interests at the time he recognizes a need to pursue a special interest.

Evaluating Progress Toward Objectives

Several pupil comments reported in Part One indicate the vital importance of effective evaluation to articulation. Some of the situations cited by children as having helped or hindered their steady progress through school were these: moving to a new school community, moving to the next school level, differences in teaching methods, illness, accidents, promotions, grading, and retention in the same grade. Others were causes stated or implied by children as explaining their positive or negative reactions to their experiences: success with subject matter or fear of the unknown.

Some of these situations relate to evaluation. Moving to a new school community or to a new level could be accomplished more smoothly if the child's attainment of stated school objectives were accurately assessed at the time of the move so the child's program at the new level could be planned realistically. Smoothness is more likely to be attained if progress can be measured accurately and continuingly. Such evaluation will permit quick identification of difficulties the student encounters, so that corrective action can be taken before the difficulties become serious blocks to progress. Differences in teaching methods are less likely to cause trouble if evaluation techniques are used with each method so as to ascertain that students are progressing in accord with expectations. Time lost due to illness or accident can be made up most readily if evaluation can help determine the point at which the child can best re-enter the educational program after he returns to school. A major factor in grading, promotion or retention should be evidence of progress toward the stated objectives.

Determining degree of success with subject matter is part of the evaluation process. Fear of the unknown is likely to be lessened if evaluation procedures are used to keep the student informed as to his progress.

The preceding section on individual differences likewise emphasizes a great need for effective evaluation. The teacher cannot provide for differences among children unless he knows what these differences are—for each child. Assessing these differences is a necessary part of an evaluation program.

Evaluation is here used in a broad sense which includes, but is not limited to, the concept of tests and measurements. Evaluation, in our usage, is considered here as a process of systematically collecting and analyzing information of various kinds to aid in making judgments: about what objectives should be attained, what learning experiences should be selected, how pupil study should be planned, how the pupil is progressing toward objectives appropriate for him, how to improve instruction, and, in general, how to increase the effectiveness of the entire school program. The process includes self-evaluation by pupils as well as evaluation by teachers and school officials.

The following example shows some ways in which effective use of evaluation procedures contributes to better articulation as well as to the general effectiveness of the school program. School X, a consolidated junior high school, serves a population of students who come from several different elementary schools, some rural and some urban. Some information such as standardized test scores and school marks is passed on to the junior high school by the principals of the elementary schools. However, since much of this information is available for only a portion

of the students, and since there is considerable variation in standards and reporting procedures among the several elementary schools, it is necessary for School X to take steps to obtain most of its own data.

In the first two weeks after the students enter the junior high school, several evaluation instruments and procedures are employed. Students are interviewed for the purposes of getting information on their background and of orienting them to the new school. They are asked to fill out questionnaires on further details of their background and on what they expect of junior high school. They are given pre-tests, which do not influence their grades, to determine their level of achievement in each subject. Adjustment inventories are administered to get detailed information as to how each sees himself and the situations in which he lives. Group discussions are held for purposes such as getting further information about the students and their interests, acquainting them with various units of instruction, or helping them get acquainted with each other.

As the school term progresses, various tests, questionnaires, scales and other devices are administered to obtain evidence of progress toward objectives. Evaluation procedures such as these are administered as needed on a continuing basis throughout each school year.

Because evaluation results often are filed and then forgotten or not used, a systematic routing system is employed which gets each result into the hands of the person who needs it. The following are some of the practical uses made of the results.

Teachers and school officials are able to use evaluation data to identify objectives and select learning experiences which are appropriate for each student. They are better able to appeal to the students by capitalizing on their interests and preferences. They are able to be more helpful in guidance sessions because they are familiar with students' problems. They are able to make group discussions more effective because they have information on the kinds of contributions each student is able to make. They are better able to give explanations that are meaningful because they are familiar with the experience background and achievement levels of the students, and therefore know which explanations will have the most meaning for them. In short, the teachers and school officials have obtained through evaluation much of the information they need to provide better continuity of learning experiences.

The eighth and final principle is on the importance of the kinds of evaluation procedures just described: *Effective evaluation procedures should be used to determine each student's initial status and to obtain evidence of his progress toward objectives so that realistic plans may be made for further progress.* This principle is related to articulation in

many ways, as explained in preceding paragraphs. Perhaps these two are the most critical of the relationships to articulation:

1. Through use of proper techniques of evaluation the development of each child can be traced, making it possible to a considerable extent to plan succeeding learning experiences in such manner that continuity of learning experiences is *built into the plan* for each child.

2. Use of appropriate evaluation techniques on a continuing basis makes it possible to determine at an early point when a child is experiencing a break or interruption in the continuity of his learning experiences. Corrective action can then be taken before serious damage is done to the child's school adjustment or achievement.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provides part of the logical foundation for the approach to articulation which is recommended in this yearbook, and for the evaluation of specific articulation practices cited in Part Three.

Eight principles concerning objectives are stated in the chapter, together with analyses of the relationships of each to problems of articulation. The principles presented do not comprise an all-inclusive list of principles concerning development and use of objectives. Only those principles bearing most directly on problems of articulation are included. These are:

1. It is necessary to formulate the objectives of an educational program in order to plan, conduct and improve the program. Moreover, these objectives should be stated clearly and specifically enough to provide guidance in designing and conducting learning experiences and in evaluating student achievement.

2. Educational objectives should be formulated by translating the needs of the learner and the needs of society into desired outcomes of the learning process.

3. Achievement of stated objectives often requires prior attainment of prerequisite objectives; hence the objectives selected for the learner to attain must be realistic in terms of his previous attainments and experiences.

4. The ultimate or general objectives are essentially the same at all levels from kindergarten through Grade 12. Important differences are found only in relative emphasis and in the immediate objectives at the various levels.

5. Due to important relationships among many subject areas in kindergarten through Grade 12, objectives involving various subject areas should be stated so that they reinforce and supplement each other as much as possible, and so that the relationships are readily perceived by the students.

6. The levels of attainment of objectives a teacher should expect students to attain are those which are appropriate for *each* student, not necessarily those appropriate for the average child.

7. Although stated objectives intended for all students to some degree are of fundamental importance in an educational program, they do not encompass all the aspects of the child's development that should be included in the purposes of the school; the school should also foster growth in areas of emphasis unique to each child.

8. Effective evaluation procedures should be used to determine each student's initial status and to obtain evidence of his progress toward objectives so that realistic plans may be made for further progress.

Considering Curriculum Content

ARTICULATION is often a curricular problem. This was true for a great many of the students questioned about experiences which helped or hindered their smooth progress through school. Difficulty with learning subject matter, different emphases placed on subject matter or assignments by different teachers, difficulty in catching up or repeating material when changing schools, and difficulty in meeting rigid standards are typical problems reported by students. These point to a need for considering curriculum content in the development of continuous learning experiences.

Inadequacy of a Sequence Based on Subject Matter Logic

The logic of subject matter organization has long been considered one of the best means of providing a base for continuous learning in our schools. The definition of the content of our graded system of education is based on an attempt to identify the elements of a given body of subject matter and arrange them for mastery in terms of their increasing difficulty or complexity. The arrangement of the elements of arithmetic beginning with simple processes involving whole numbers and moving to more difficult processes and thence to fractions of numbers and so on is typical of this practice. The plan in the social studies area for beginning with the here and now and, as children advance by grades, moving to the far away in time and space is another attempt to develop learning logically from the simple to the complex.

Variety of Environmental Situations

Many factors which influence the learning and growth of children seem to make apparent the inadequacy of logically arranged subject areas as a base for continuous learning experience. One approach might

be simply to observe what children today are actually experiencing. From their early years American children are plunged into complex living situations in which it is difficult to isolate or separate the simpler from the more complicated elements. In the use of arithmetical processes these children count large quantities; they are early faced with dividing a given number of things among their friends; they frequently are concerned with one-half, one-fourth, and other fractional parts; and some of them handle with amazing skill their money and other applications of our decimal place value system. Children cannot wait to face certain mathematical situations just because the school curriculum prescribes that certain other phases of arithmetic must precede the item in question.

This same situation exists in other areas of learning. Children cannot wait for a study of a gradually expanding social environment—home, school, neighborhood, community, region and world—before they recognize a need to understand the impact on their lives of events in all these places. Few families in this country in recent years have not had one or more members serving in the armed forces or traveling in far-off places. The children themselves travel; they view television or read stories about the faraway and long ago. Their need to understand what they hear and see or read is impelling.

Varying Abilities and Rates of Development

A second factor operating against the effectiveness of exactly graded subject matter as a base for continuous learning is the fact that children differ in their rate of growth and development. Some children are ready for certain kinds of learning much earlier than other children. Great differences in growth rate are tolerated within the normal range of development. This makes it very clear that some normal first graders may not be ready to learn certain first grade subject sequences until they are second graders or even third graders. By the same token some other normal first graders may be ready to advance beyond the specified learnings. As children grow older these differences become greater, which means that junior and senior high school students may even be further apart in their readiness to learn certain junior and senior high school sequences. Statements by students which are reported in Part One underline the difficulties learners face when graded subject sequences are strictly observed. Fear of nonpromotion because of failure to master certain material, difficulty on a new grade level when the previous year's material was not mastered, and gaps in or duplication of subject matter when changing to a new school were found among the kinds of experiences which students felt operated against continuous

learning for them. The necessity for taking pupil differences into account is elaborated in Chapters 7 and 8 with respect to the learning process and to educational objectives.

Varying Backgrounds of Experience

A third factor influencing children's learning is the difference in the background of experience which they bring to school with them. For instruction to be effective, the child must be ready for the learning experience. That is, he must have had experiences in home, school and community which have caused him to be concerned and informed about the area of learning and which have brought about the development of concepts that allow him to deal with the new step in learning. Readiness by a group of learners to master part of a tightly organized subject matter sequence would presuppose a more or less uniform background of experience on the part of group members. For several reasons this is not possible. The differences in the social and cultural backgrounds which children bring to school with them are one obstacle to uniformity of experience. Another obstacle is the fact that different learners incorporate different aspects of a commonly shared situation into their experiences.

Continuity for the Learner

The foregoing statements do not deny that each subject area has its logic or order which should be respected. However, they do question the way in which the logic of subject matter has been expressed for mastery by learners. It will always be important for children and youth to gain perspective in regard to fields of knowledge. It will be important for them, among other things, to gain an orderly idea of our number system, to understand man's struggle through the ages for a voice in his government, and to comprehend the ways in which social institutions are related to the individual and society. Are there not ways, however, to view the logic of a field of knowledge that will facilitate its mastery and at the same time make it serve the need for better continuity of learning by children and youth? Each learner's organization of his experiences in a subject area is somewhat different from that of any other persons. This must be true because the products of his learning and the way he sees them are not identical to those of any other person. Nor should they be.

In considering ways by which continuous learning may be promoted it is well to remember that continuity of learning is what happens inside the individual learner as he has new experiences. That which fosters continuous learning for one individual may not serve the same purpose

for another individual. Continuity should be a matter of putting events, information or situations into some kind of logical relationship with other events, information or situations which have been a part of the experience of the individual. Since man is essentially a logical, reasoning being, it is proper to assume that this process of establishing continuity between present experience and past experiences is in constant operation throughout life. This means, of course, that children and youth feel the need to organize new experiences into some kind of whole which makes sense. Learning then, should be a process of helping the individual to improve his ability to see relationships and to establish accurate generalizations.

Continuity is also a matter of selecting from an experience that course of action, information or attitude which seems most logical in terms of one's self-interpreted needs, concerns and desires. Man is a constant evaluator. This is a natural part of his attempt to establish continuity. Education's role in this activity should be that of improving the process by which children and youth select their learnings. Learners should have increasing understanding of their own developing needs and of the relationship of the needs to the means by which they can be met satisfactorily.

It is apparent that we cannot give continuity to children. It would be very difficult to devise a formula by which an optimum continuity of learning could be guaranteed for all learners. Certainly, attempts to define scope and sequence in terms of graded subject matter content or units to be covered have not achieved the best continuity of learning for all. It should be possible, however, to develop a teaching-learning situation wherein children and youth find it easier to gain a sense of wholeness and continuity in their learning. It would seem that what is known about the learning process and the difficulties students face in their progress through school makes it imperative that a different organizing base for curriculum experiences be sought through a redefinition of the content of our school programs. Curriculum planners would do well to reconsider their stated objectives (as suggested in Chapter 8) as they examine closely what is now represented in most statements of scope and sequence.

Redefinition of Content for Continuous Learning

In a search for realistic objectives, two areas which affect continuity in learning might be considered. First of these is a definition of the basic understandings and concepts found in each of the subject matter fields which are essential to living in modern society. These might serve to replace outlines of specific knowledge and factual materials as ob-

jectives of teaching. The second area is a definition of the skills needed to meet the continually recurring problems of living. Each of these areas will be discussed in some detail in the material that follows.

Basic Concepts

For a long time the purpose of education has been recognized as that of helping learners develop basic understandings and concepts which enable them to function adequately in their daily living experiences. Interestingly enough, however, courses of study usually state the specific objectives of teaching in terms of factual material or content areas to be covered at a given time. Concepts to be developed in the process of studying the outlined material frequently are not specifically identified. In fact, the interrelatedness of the subject matter proposed and the logic of the arrangement of topics are not always readily apparent. Individual teachers must assume responsibility for identifying and developing whatever relationships exist within the content to be learned. It is proposed that for the sake of improving continuity in learning, this process be reversed. Objectives would be stated in terms of carefully defined concepts to be developed with suggestions for a variety of experiences and content that will contribute specifically to their development. There are a number of reasons why this seems to be a good way to define a portion of the objectives of learning.

We recognize that the understandings and concepts which each individual has developed in the process of his own living and learning are basic to all his thinking and acting. Each experience has a potential contribution to make to further development of these concepts. We must help the individual to select from each experience the elements which add to his conceptual framework. In this way education contributes to the improvement of the natural process of reasoning and thus to continuity in learning.

There is another reason for defining teaching objectives in this way. Attention to concept-formation makes for economy and permanency in learning. This argument has strong appeal today in view of the persistent demands to understand and interpret the vast store of knowledge which has accumulated through the years and which, in this age of rapid technological and scientific advance, is expanding more rapidly than ever before. Man is bombarded with more information than he can hope to make his own. His dilemma is that he needs to know more than he can possibly know. This situation offers a problem to curriculum planners. They must help select from this array of knowledge those portions which have promise of significance to learners at various stages in their development. On what basis can such a choice be made?

What determines the significance of certain portions of a field of knowledge?

An answer seems to lie in the identification of certain basic concepts which give meaning to modern living or which define the basic ideas comprising a field of knowledge. Phenix¹ designates the latter as "key concepts." He develops the thesis that by means of a philosophical analysis of the theories underlying fields of human knowledge and the identification of key concepts which epitomize significant features of a large number of more specific ideas it is possible to effect a spectacular economy in learning. The point is that such concepts are basic ideas, an understanding of which enables one to grasp effectively an entire field of knowledge. These ideas form the basis on which individual items of knowledge within a field can be rightly interpreted and chosen for study.

For purposes of illustration, Phenix analyzes certain key concepts in several areas of knowledge. In the field of science he discusses three such ideas: abstraction, public verification and fruitfulness. He describes them thus:

Abstraction: "Science is characterized by the search for valid generalizations, and this is accomplished by analyzing complete entities so as to reveal certain common properties."

Public verification: "Scientific knowledge is distinguished by the designation of tests which any person could in principle carry out to verify the proposition asserted."

Fruitfulness: "The scientific enterprise is the search for fruitful hypotheses, for theories which lead to further inquiry and discovery. Hypotheses which open no new doors are scientifically useless."²

Key concepts such as these give significance to the science learnings at all levels in the educative process. Many experiences contribute to their development. In the elementary school as children are encouraged to observe their natural environment, to generalize about such phenomena as protective coloration or evaporation, and to devise ways to test the validity of their generalizations, experiences with the ideas of abstraction and verification are also being provided. These experiences become a part of the children's developing understanding of the idea and methodology of science. Laboratory work in secondary school science, to cite another example, can be developed so students will grasp the idea that they are engaged in one important function of science—that of testing and verifying the propositions developed by

¹ Philip H. Phenix. "Key Concepts and the Crisis in Learning." *Teachers College Record* 58: 137-43; December 1956.

² *Ibid.*, p. 141.

scientists before them. Mastery of this one function, however, is not enough. Students must be encouraged to dare to hypothesize beyond the existing laws and propositions and to devise ways under guidance to test their hypotheses. This interest in new inquiry and discovery is the essence of science.

Reliance on an organization around basic concepts suggests that the emphasis should be placed upon the process of understanding rather than on the mechanical features and isolated facts of a subject area. Fehr says that in such an emphasis on the conceptual base of mathematics, "The mechanics are not neglected, but they are the end by-product, and not the main goal of learning. We are teaching students to learn how to learn mathematics."³

Other analyses of areas of knowledge have netted frequently concepts of a different order from those reported in the preceding material. These concepts are usually expressed as generalizations derived from the factual content of the area. An example of this may be found in the social studies field in which the results of such analysis have been stated as concepts of interdependence, cooperation, change and others. The purpose of this chapter is not to indicate the form which seems best for expressing the basic concepts but to point out what may be a desirable approach to a definition of teaching objectives.

A feature of this proposal which makes for economy and permanency in learning is the idea that the extension of concept development enables learners to gain breadth and depth of understanding rather than concentrate on a large number of isolated facts and unrelated details. True understanding of central organizing concepts is less subject to forgetting than is the accumulation of a mass of meaningless detail.

Details are not scorned in such an approach. They are used in developing basic concepts and generalizations. These in turn make subsequently learned details more significant. The focus is not on details but on the key concepts.

Concept formation as a teaching objective has a further advantage in offering a guide for planning which will allow for considerable freedom in choosing specific experiences and content having meaning to a group of students. It is important to note here that concepts are not taught directly. They develop as learners deal with content that exemplifies basic ideas. The nature of conceptual development is such, however, that any number of different kinds of experiences dealing with a wide variety of content can contribute to the same fundamental concepts. The key lies in the way in which learners are

³ Howard F. Fehr. "Reorientation in Mathematics Education." *Teachers College Record* 54: 53-39; 436. May 1953.

helped to see relationships and to make inferences for their own behavior or understanding as they undergo recurring experiences with ideas in a given area.

Effective use of a variety of ways for helping children achieve certain basic understandings is illustrated by a report from a school system which has recently attempted to state teaching objectives as concepts to be developed.⁴ The efforts of a group of first and second grade teachers to bring about better understanding of certain basic social concepts through different experiences which had particular significance and meaning to each group of children are reported. Among concepts which they set as objectives for their social studies program were the following:

- Awareness of change and the way social and scientific advances affect man's living and working
- Deepened concept of self and an ability to assess personal strengths and weaknesses
- Awareness of cooperation among mankind as a means of solving common problems
- Awareness of the reality of interdependence among mankind.

One teacher, recognizing the intense interest of her first grade children in space travel, worked with them on preparations for an imaginary trip to the moon and found many ways to help children grasp the ideas inherent in her objectives. Another teacher helped her second grade children develop a project centering around a toy shop. Members of her group observed the workers collaborating in toy production, created their own toy factory and retail shop and conducted a thriving business, buying and selling the toys they made. Still another second grade teacher used identical objectives as children in her group studied the telephone service in their town. Another teacher concentrated on these same objectives as her first graders studied camping.

This brief delineation of the role which concept development can play in fostering continuous learning experiences suggests a number of problems for study. Considerable time and attention would need to be given to the defining of significant concepts appropriate to learners in this culture. Teachers would need to understand the nature of concept development in order to provide the opportunities and experiences which encourage development of these basic understandings. Probably most important of all would be the development of skill in recognizing and selecting from a vast array of knowledge those specific items which have meaning for children and which contribute to sound generalizations.

⁴ Helen Fisher. "Time for Change." *San Diego County Curriculum Journal*, May-June, 1957. p. 6-9.

Skills To Meet Recurring Problems of Living

As stated earlier in this chapter, learners select for retention those elements of an experience which have meaning in terms of their present needs. This was described as a factor in continuous learning. What is selected from the present experience depends on what has been learned from past experiences and will, in turn, influence what is selected from future experiences. This persisting need to meet concerns and problems of everyday living is of great significance in developing continuity in learning. The fact that the same problems and concerns of everyday living recur in some form or other at each successive stage in human development further underlines the need for a redefinition of the content of our school program to allow for continuous attention to these concerns.

Basic to such a redefinition is an attempt to determine the nature of the problems which recur. Help can be obtained from the growing body of information derived from research and study of the recurring concerns of children and youth. Stratemeyer and her associates have identified and described in some detail the persistent life situations which learners face.⁵ Havighurst, Sullivan and Erikson have attempted to define what they consider to be the developmental tasks of people in this culture.⁶

Each of these studies has held that problems and concerns resulting from an interaction of the developing human organism with cultural and societal forces recur at each level of development from birth through adulthood.

Educational objectives based on these concerns would provide for opportunities to develop skills necessary to cope with the problem as it shows itself at each new level of development. Thus, it would be realized that getting along in the family is a concern of the teenager and young adult as well as of the six year old and that the usual first grade unit on the home and family would not be sufficient to care for the problem forever. It might be just as appropriate for a group of teenagers to consider this problem.

For purposes of further illustration let us look at another area of persisting needs. Relating to changing social groups is a concern in

⁵ Florence B. Stratemeyer, Hamden L. Forkner, Margaret G. McKim, and A. Harry Passow. *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. Revised edition. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957.

⁶ See: Robert J. Havighurst. *Human Development and Education*. New York: Longmans, 1953; Harry Stack Sullivan. *The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1953; Erik H. Erikson, *Childhood and Society*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1950.

one way or another of people of all ages. The very young child must learn simple interaction with age mates while he is learning to adjust in the family to its expectations for a child as a member of the social unit. The older child in broadening his social world must understand the demands of his peers because he is faced with establishing himself as an acceptable member of his group. This can be difficult because peers, unlike family adults, are apt to demand as much as they give. The changing social world of the young adolescent brings him face to face with a radically shifting peer code in relation to members of the opposite sex. How you behave, what you do and what you say in the presence of the opposite sex suggest some of the problems faced by the adolescent. The older adolescent must adapt to adult standards of social behavior as he assumes the stature and characteristics of adulthood. The concerns attendant upon the successive developmental stages readily suggest the nature of a series of experiences which would help learners continuously develop ability to meet a constantly recurring learning need for getting along socially. Furthermore, the way in which these needs are identified does not limit the kinds of experiences which a specific group of children might have in order to meet specific needs in respect to this problem.

The foregoing illustration shows that our immediate objective of helping a child deal successfully with his present concerns will also contribute to his ability to meet other aspects of the same problem when it recurs later. Chapter 8, dealing with educational objectives, recommends that, for the sake of continuity in learning, attention should be given to the statement of objectives so that the purposes of teaching which are common to all levels will become more evident. Definition of purposes in terms of the continually recurring problems of living and the skills necessary to solve them would seem to meet this criterion as well as others discussed in Chapter 8.

Implications for School Practices

The statement of objectives in terms of basic concepts to be developed and of skills to meet the continually recurring problems of living is at best a means of providing a setting conducive to continuity in learning. The keys to continuous learning for children and youth are the school policies and practices which implement the objectives. The way in which a classroom teacher works with the pupils will, in the final analysis, determine the effectiveness of any curriculum plan in meeting the needs of the individuals in his class. Several school practices are suggested by the teaching objectives proposed earlier in this chapter.

Curriculum and Personal Records

Any attempt to help individual students to build concepts and to grow in ability to meet new manifestations of their persistent problems of living presupposes a rather complete understanding of their personal and school histories. Viewed in this way curriculum records as well as personal records become a necessity. The context of such records needs to be carefully chosen if it is to serve the purpose of providing a real base for guidance and the planning of meaningful experiences that help to achieve fundamental teaching objectives.

Much specific information is needed from curriculum records. The listing of unit topics with brief descriptions of material covered is not sufficient. The kinds of questions children ask, the depth of their inquiry into the various aspects of the study, the kinds of generalizations they are able to make, and their feelings about their participation should be recorded. These records can be a rich source of anecdotal material which indicates the true flavor of an experience. Anecdotal records which support the teacher's assessment of the results of an experience should also be included. Careful noting of the ideas which need further attention or clarification is a valuable part of such records. Teachers reading these records should be able to get a clear picture of the breadth and depth of experiences provided for children as a base for planning additional experiences for and with them.

Personal records of each child become a vital supplement to the curriculum records. Here would be recorded as much of the personal history of each child as would be available to the school. Descriptions of the nature of a child's participation in group experiences, indications of his feelings about other children or his relations to the group, results of tests or sociometric devices, and samples of his work are among the many sources of information which would be included. Anecdotal records indicating a child's strengths as well as his needs and concerns should be included. Information about the individual's depth of understanding and his ability to see relationships within his experiences would be particularly pertinent. The use of such individual records along with the curriculum records of a class should enable a teacher to see very quickly the place each child has occupied in group undertakings and give clues to needed individual activities.

Using records of these kinds over a period of years within one school offers no serious problem. It seems important, however, for records to be transmitted to a new school when a student transfers. Such records as these could be invaluable to the continuation of smooth progress for students in their new school. Chapter 11 will give other suggestions on this point.

Planning with Children

Teacher-pupil planning has long been considered one of the best means of involving students in curriculum development. The belief has been that when learners are involved in the process of planning their own learning experiences, problems with which they are genuinely concerned are more likely to be considered. There is no better way for teachers to gain insight into the concepts children have developed than during the process of planning learning activities. The questions children ask, their grasp of the ramifications of a problem, and the ways they propose for studying problems are indicative of the growth and understanding they have achieved. For these reasons, cooperative planning at all levels is one of the best means of promoting continuous learning.

The foregoing does not suggest that the only planning for continuous learning takes place as teachers and pupils work together. The teacher has a definite leadership role to play in providing for continuity in learning. The quality of preplanning done by the teacher determines to a large degree the effectiveness of the planning he does with pupils. It is he who must keep a broader perspective on the concepts and skills to be developed. It is he who must plan for the development of a group spirit which permits pupils to work together and assume responsibility for their own learning. It is he who must guide group decisions in light of what he knows about individual and group needs and readiness for certain experiences. It becomes his function to help his students understand the implications of their problems, to explore their ramifications, and to relate these to past experiences and to the possible future consequences of present decisions.

An important aspect of cooperative planning is self-evaluation on the part of individuals and of groups. Such evaluation can make a valuable contribution to continuity of learning. When learners engage in an examination of their experiences in terms of their contribution to certain defined purposes, the result is greater insight and purpose in learning. This, in turn, should lead to sounder choices of future learning activities. Self-assessment opens up new avenues for achieving continuous improvement of one's understanding and skills.

Providing a Variety of Materials and Activities

An adequate program for continuous learning provides for a great variety of activities and materials in a single classroom. Chapter 15 discusses in detail ways and means of providing a variety of learning materials. Individual readiness in terms of concept development and problem solving makes it imperative that provision be made for each

child to work at his own pace and to select experiences and materials suited to his own abilities and concerns. There will be in most classrooms a series of common experiences shared by all children. Within this framework there should be flexibility in the use of time and a variety of activities so that each individual may make his maximum contribution to the group in terms of his own development. There also should be activities which give an opportunity for pupils or small groups to work on problems of individual concern to them. It is through this kind of choice that each individual is able to fill gaps in his own experience and to pursue that learning most profitable to him at a given point.

Such a plan enables the teacher to function effectively as a guide toward optimum individual development of pupils. This is an opportunity for the teacher to pace direct instruction to the needs of individuals and small groups. He can help individuals see relationships, draw conclusions and analyze their own needs for further learning. Such activity is the essence of continuous learning.

Administrative Arrangements

Continuity cannot be assured by administrative devices. There are certain administrative arrangements, however, which will encourage and promote the kind of environment in which continuous learning is most likely to develop. Certainly teachers and others concerned with the learning of children and youth need time to plan together and develop common understanding of pupils in school. Effective planning for the continuous development of concepts and skills needs to be centered in the individual school. Teachers, the principal, and parents must share responsibility for agreeing upon objectives, planning means for achieving these, and evaluating results of their efforts. In schools where many teachers work with the same students these teachers should at regular intervals plan together for improving continuity among classes and other activities. Providing of meaningful experiences for groups of pupils to help them achieve better continuity in learning demands much more specific planning by school staffs than has ordinarily been allowed for in curriculum development. This requires much staff time. Attention must be given to means whereby teachers and others can have adequate time, free from conflicting demands, for carrying on this essential activity.

Grouping practices and promotion policies have direct influence on continuity in learning. Freedom from the pressures which arise through adherence to rigid grade norms and through certain undesirable types of achievement testing programs is important if teachers are to be

expected to take each child where he is and help him progress at his own best pace. Attention to the way children are grouped in school is a necessary consideration in planning a curriculum that is suitable for them. Interage grouping seems to hold some promise here. Whatever the grouping system used, it is important for pupils at all levels to work with one teacher for long enough periods of time for that teacher to know the pupils well. In the elementary school it seems best for the larger part of a pupil's time during the day to be spent under the direction of one teacher who serves as coordinator of all his school activities. In the secondary school, groups of students should be assigned to one teacher for long enough time each day for the teacher to know the group well. This teacher, then, can become the person who coordinates the staff's curriculum planning for this particular group of students.

Chapter Summary

The inadequacy of basing curriculum sequences upon subject matter logic is discussed in this chapter, with some attention given to several factors that contribute to this inadequacy: the variety and complexity of the environmental situations in which children live, varying pupil abilities and rates of development and learning, and the varying experiential backgrounds of learners. Attention is given to the necessity of considering curriculum sequence in terms of continuity of experience for individual children. Two ways of redefining curriculum content are proposed as means of promoting a more adequate continuity in school learning.

The first proposal is that outlines of sequentially organized content for each subject matter area be replaced by an organization centered around basic concepts or understandings in each area. The development of these basic understandings would help learners to build a conceptual framework that would give greater meaning to experience and promote greater economy and permanence of learning. The nature of concept development is such as to permit variety in the choice of meaningful experiences which can contribute to the development of a given concept.

A definition of content in terms of skills to meet the recurring problems of living is also proposed. The theory that certain problems recur in one form or another throughout the life of an individual is the basis for this proposal. As each pupil is helped to cope with a present concern his ability to cope with succeeding problems is improved. This is seen as contributing directly to continuous learning.

These proposals for improving continuity in curriculum development suggest several school practices. A system of school records of curriculum

activities and personal records of children is essential to consistent development of concepts and problem solving skills. Cooperative planning by teachers and pupils is an effective means of promoting continuous learning. Provision for choice by pupils among a variety of materials and activities in a single classroom is discussed. Administrative arrangements can make a contribution to continuity by allowing time for staff planning and by grouping and promoting pupils in ways which provide smoother articulation of learning experience. Descriptions of these and other school practices which represent attempts to help children make steady progress through school are included in Part Three of this volume, which follows immediately.

Part Three

Continuity in Practice

Exploring Current Practices

ARGUMENTS which seem to demand a choice between theory and practice or which put theory and practice in opposition to each other are apt to lead nowhere except to further argument or to an agreement to disagree. Educational theory and educational practice can each be most useful when they are placed in relation to each other. Each is the best test of the other. If educational theory is sound, it should stand the test of being put into practice. If educational practice is sound, it should stand the test of being checked against theoretical considerations.

So it is with theory and practice when a school attempts to improve the continuity of children's school learning experiences. Part Two of this volume emphasizes theoretical positions to be considered as school people plan for better school articulation. The principles stated in that section suggest basic theory in child development, learning, curriculum, and use of stated educational objectives. The reader has been urged to use these theoretical considerations as bases of improving present school practices and also as bases for evaluating the current practices which are to be reported in Part Three of this book.

The present section (Part Three) presents a sampling of current practices which have been chosen to illustrate approaches now being made to improve articulation in various parts of the country and in different types of schools. These practices and others known to the reader should be evaluated in terms of the material in Part Two and should also be carefully examined as possible sources of other theoretical considerations, either to supplement or replace those stated earlier.

Purposes of Exploring Present Practice

Evaluation of articulation practices and of articulation theory, each in terms of the other, is of course one purpose for including in the

yearbook a sampling of current practices designed to improve articulation. Other objectives of the committee in including the material in Part Three may need some elaboration.

Prevention and Cure

Research reported in Part One highlighted many unnecessary problems faced by children as they progress through school, many problems also which could not be satisfactorily solved without help from others. As teachers and other school personnel read about what is being done in other schools and communities, it is to be hoped that they will find some clues to ways and means of (a) preventing some of those unnecessary problems and (b) helping pupils to solve existing problems which they cannot be expected to handle completely on their own initiative.

Quotations from student reports have been used generously in various parts of this yearbook. They support eloquently the urgent need for educators to bend their efforts toward both prevention and cure of problems of articulation. These quotations are by no means all negative. The accounts of ways in which pupils were helped to make progress and to make adjustments to new and strange situations are most useful. The pupils' stated and implied causes of their reactions also afford many clues as to origin of preventable and curable difficulties.

All six chapters of Part Three will give much more extended treatment of current school practices than was possible in the student reports. Further, all will have some implications for both preventing and solving articulation difficulties.

Attempts To Meet Articulation Problems

This section gives some examples of attempts being made to meet problems of interrupted or broken continuity of learning. Three types of situations are treated: (a) when children move to a different school community; (b) when children move to the next higher school level of a local school system; and (c) as children move along within the same school level (e. g., within elementary school, junior high school, or senior high school). Chapters 11, 12 and 13 deal, respectively, with these three problem situations. Each chapter develops the significance of the problems which arise in the particular type of situation being considered. Some of the possible causes of barriers to learners' progress are suggested. Finally, each chapter presents a variety of current school practices designed to remove existing problems or to prevent their occurrence.

Approaches to Articulation Problems in General

The last three chapters of Part Three serve a somewhat different purpose than do the first three, though they are all directed toward both prevention and cure of articulation ills. The latter chapters do not focus upon particular types of situations in which continuity needs to be improved; rather, they suggest avenues of approach to improvement of articulation in general. From among many approaches to continuity which might have been developed, three were chosen for discussion: (a) in-service faculty study focused on improving principals' and teachers' understanding of children and youth; (b) selection and use of instructional materials; and (c) efforts of a regional accrediting association to promote better relations between elementary and secondary schools.

How To Interpret the Reported Practices

The yearbook committee recognizes certain limitations in the material reported in Part Three. These limitations should be recognized by readers if the illustrative material in this section is to be of maximum benefit to them as they search for ways of improving continuity in their own schools. The limitations are of at least three general types: restrictions intentionally placed on the selection of examples because of limitations such as available space; imperfections in the practices themselves; and restrictions on the applicability of reported practices in other situations.

Restrictions on Selection of Examples

The sampling of practices to improve continuity in children's learning is an incomplete one, though an attempt has been made to deal in Chapters 11, 12 and 13 with frequently recurring articulation problems. Chapters 14, 15 and 16 represent the same sort of selection with respect to *approaches* to articulation problems as Chapters 11, 12 and 13 represent with respect to articulation *situations*.

The sampling of illustrations is incomplete in another sense which might be designated as geographic or locational. Many of the descriptions of attempts to aid pupils' steady progress through school might fit equally well the efforts being made in other schools in other places in the United States. Descriptions have been kept specific (except as to name) to preserve the impression of authenticity; these are practices which are actually being used in schools. Names of schools and places have been deleted except where references to sources prevent disguising the location of the practice. The deletion of identifying names

in all other examples was done in an attempt to focus attention on the *practice* rather than on *who* was doing it *where*. To attempt to give credit would lead to some misconceptions, chief of which would be the lack of mention of other schools or organizations which are doing as much to aid articulation as are the schools and organizations whose reports are used.

Limitations in the Examples Themselves

The practices reported in Chapters 11-16 vary in quality. No one of these is cited as representing the ideal or the ultimate in the way of helping children to achieve continuity in their school experiences. Each has been chosen because it seemed to have in it some element (or several elements) of promise in promoting better articulation; but weaknesses are present as well. The reader is invited to evaluate each practice critically in terms of the basic principles set forth in Part Two and in terms of his own standards and the needs of his own school situation.

Anyone who reads all the illustrations of practice in Part Three will be conscious of some overlapping of suggestions and ideas. It is to be expected, for example, that certain practices may be helpful both when children move to a new school community (Chapter 11) and when they move to the next higher school in the same community (Chapter 12); adequate use and interpretation of records would be such a practice. At times, the repetition may be helpful in pointing out the applicability of certain practices in various situations.

Restrictions on Applying Practices in Other Situations

What works well in one situation on one occasion may not work as well in another situation or on another occasion. The practices presented in Part Three may not work out as well in other schools or with other people (children, teachers, administrators, parents). In reading descriptions of practices which have seemed helpful elsewhere, one must always select those features for home use which seem to fit the particular case. Elaborate record keeping schemes may be appropriate in some schools or school systems and not in others. A type of faculty study program which proves helpful in one place with one group of teachers or principals may not have similar usefulness in another place with other people involved. Readiness of children for experiences has been repeatedly stressed throughout this yearbook; readiness of adults operates in the same manner. Some school people will be ready for certain practices and others not be at all prepared to put these into operation. The central idea of a practice or procedure may be appro-

priate, but modifications may need to be made to make it fit other situations.

In reading some of the chapters on practices to improve articulation, the reader may be making mental note of more applications of ideas to other areas of educational procedure than to articulation. For example, a teacher or supervisor reading Chapter 15 on use of instructional materials may get more help on management details and economy of operation than on articulation of children's learning experiences—particularly if that is what he happens to be looking for as he reads. This is not bad. The committee feels that the relation of the suggestions to articulation problems is possible and sensible; if readers find other uses for these suggestions, that is all to the good, educationally speaking. As a matter of fact, articulation of children's educative experiences is this kind of idea. If relations to other facets of the educational enterprise were not easily made, one might seriously question the articulative merits of the suggestions.

The Reader Selects for Himself

The committee has selected a variety of practices designed to contribute to the improvement of continuity in children's school learning experiences. The selection is not complete. The practices are not perfect. Any practice may need to be adapted to the needs and purposes of application in other situations.

Helping Children Adjust to a New School Community

ONE SIGNIFICANT characteristic of contemporary society in the United States is that the population has become relatively mobile. Recent figures seem to indicate that one-fourth of the school children in our country are attending schools that are new to them this year because they have moved to a new community. In 1949, for instance, there were 27,127,000 persons five years old and over living in places different from where they were living the previous year. Of this number 18,792,000 were living in different houses in the same county, and 8,335,000 were living in different counties. There were 4,344,000 of this group who were living in different states.¹ If we can assume that the ratio of school age children among this group is about the same as it is among the group not moving, approximately 25% of the children in the United States were living and attending school in different communities in 1949 from where they were in 1948.

Logically the high incidence of pupil mobility from school to school makes this potentially an important aspect of the task of providing continuous educational experiences for children. The data presented in Chapter 2 of this yearbook indicate that this is more than a potentiality. Of the 4197 articulation situations described by children, the type mentioned more than any other was moving to a new school community. The situations of this type included 27.1% of the total instances described. The type which rated second highest in frequency of mention included only 18.8% of the situations reported.² Clearly, from the evidence, the problems related to moving from one school

¹ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1951*. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1951. p. 18.

² See Graph I, page 21.

to another must be included in any adequate consideration of the task of assuring continuity of experience for children in school.

Children Face Problems in a New School Community

The problems faced by children in moving to a new school community are many and complex. Some indication of the nature of these problems and the areas of school life in which they occur can be gained by reading Chapters 2-5 of this yearbook. As shown in Chapter 5, the children and youth who were the subjects of the research reported in Part One described problems related to such matters as: lack success with subject matter, losing old friends, unfair treatment, fear of the unknown, lack of orientation to building and program, not having friends in the new school, lack of interest and concern by other people, differences in curriculum, not getting along with people, lack of help from others with lessons, fear of other people, unfriendliness of other people, lack of success with physical activities, and lack of success with nonacademic and nonphysical activities. Although this list includes problem situations of all kinds rather than only those occurring as the result of moving to a new school, it is clear that many of the problems are (and all of them could be) associated with moving to a new and strange school community.

The specific nature and intensity of the problems encountered by a given child in moving to a new school are dependent upon several factors. Among these are the child's family background and present status; the nature of the peer group relationships which he experienced in the last school compared with the peer group relationships which prevail in the new school; the nature of the relationships which he experienced with his teachers in his former school compared with the kinds of relationships encouraged by the teachers in his new school; and the nature of the curriculum, teaching methods, standards of achievement expected, over-all school organization, or pupil activities program which he experienced in his former school compared with the same factors in his new school.

Poor articulation between schools in one or more of these respects would not necessarily create serious problems for a child moving from one school to another. However, the factors are interrelated and interdependent, and usually a combination of factors is involved when serious problems occur. Human beings, younger or older, interact with the totality of their environment in terms of their experience. What their environment looks like to them is determined largely by what their experiences have been, and their perception of the new situation is a primary determinant of what they do in it. This being true, one

factor may be of great importance to one child and of little importance to another, and the factors causing these problems are unique to each child. This means that school personnel responsible for assisting children in transferring to a new school must adopt procedures which are appropriate to the needs of each individual child involved. To do this, school people need to know a great deal about the general characteristics of different groups of children who move, and also they need to be familiar with techniques which have been used successfully in dealing with individual cases.

What Types of Children Move from Community to Community?

A detailed description of all the many types of children and youth who move from community to community is beyond the limitations of a yearbook such as this. Brief descriptions of five representative groups that follow are suggestive rather than comprehensive.

Children of Migratory Families

In recent years a great deal has been written in both professional and lay literature on the problems of migratory workers and their children. This is a heterogeneous group with many subgroups within it. They have in common the fact that they are members of society who find it necessary to move from place to place periodically because of the nature of their work. The group includes, among others, "... that unique class of American gypsies. . ." described by Billie Davis,³ migratory farm workers who move with the seasons, planting and/or harvesting crops; various types of service personnel who work in seasonal vacation resorts; and construction workers who become attached to companies engaging in construction projects throughout the country. Generally speaking, this group would be classified in the lower to lower-lower socioeconomic classes. Their values are often the product of their way of life and are characterized by their emphasis on survival.

Children of migratory workers seldom remain in the same school long enough to establish a record of school achievement; hence, they enter and leave without records. The conditions under which they live make it difficult for them to develop a sense of security or belonging which is so necessary for satisfactory school achievement. Moreover, the social structure of the schools which they attend, with their emphasis on middle class values, makes it difficult for them to achieve

³ Billie Davis. "I Was a Hobo Kid." *Saturday Evening Post*. December 13, 1952. p. 25. A group of migratory workers who roam the country, living largely in the open and getting their subsistence by making and selling various types of novelties, and from handouts. Their tenure in one place is short and irregular.

a sense of belonging or a feeling of satisfactory progress. The few who do achieve satisfactory status in school often do so by adopting values and ways of behaving that are so different from the values of their parents that they become alienated from their parents.

Many of the parents of this group are negligent about enrolling their children in school—some because they want the children to work and contribute to the meager family budget, others because they do not want to embarrass themselves or their children by forcing them to associate with children who are so different from them. This also creates problems for the children when they go to school, for the values promoted by the school are in conflict with the values which motivate their parents.

Clearly, the school has a difficult task in providing continuous educational experiences that are meaningful for these children. In the first place, the absence of personnel records in their cases makes it difficult, if not impossible, for the school to discover the nature of the school experiences and the extent of success with these experiences which the children have achieved. This being true, the proper placement of these children in the new school so that they will have the best opportunities offered for them is extremely difficult.

A second, and more basic, difficulty results from the fact that school programs generally are oriented toward middle class values which are seldom understood or accepted by the lower socioeconomic classes from which migrant children come. The emphases in school programs, particularly at the secondary level, are such that status giving activities are chiefly of types which appeal to middle class children and youth. The solution of the problems related to this fact can come only as schools develop more comprehensive programs which include meaningful experience for children from all classes in society.

Children of Tourists

A second group of children who face the problem of changing schools relatively often are those whose parents are classified as tourists during certain seasons of the year. The composition of this group ranges from those whose parents move into the "vacation lands" for the purpose of securing employment in the various service trades and businesses, to those whose parents, either one or both, move south or to California during the winter months to escape the rigors of the northern winter climate. In social class status they range from the upper-lower to the upper-middle class. Parents from the upper classes often send their children to private schools or provide private tutors for them.

The children of tourists spend from two or three weeks to as much

as three months in schools other than the schools in which they begin and end the school year. As a group the parents of these children usually have a high regard for the importance of school attendance; the parents, or the older children themselves, take the initiative in getting the children enrolled in the schools where they are living temporarily. As a general rule they carry their school records with them or have these sent by the school from which they come to the school they are entering.

For school personnel this migration creates a cluster of problems ranging from providing physical facilities and instructional material to placing the children in the school to the best advantage of all concerned. To the teacher or teachers with whom the pupils are placed, the problems center around helping the pupils achieve some sense of continuity between the program from which they come and the program into which they have been placed. There is also the problem of helping these children achieve an adequate sense of belonging and acceptance within the group in which they are placed.

Children of Military Personnel

A third group of children who transfer from school to school at irregular intervals are the sons and daughters of military personnel. The pattern of transfer from station to station is established by the military authorities and is consistent from that point of view. From the viewpoint of the schools, however, the transfer takes place at irregular intervals and creates problems for both children and school personnel in relation to school achievement. In general these are the children of either commissioned or noncommissioned officers. In socioeconomic status they would be classified from lower-middle to upper-middle class. These parents are interested in the welfare of their children and concerned about their achievement in school. Knowing in advance of their transfer and the location of their new assignment, they usually make arrangements to have their children's school records made available to the school which they are to enter, and take the necessary steps to get the children enrolled in the new school.

The abilities and interests of these children, of course, vary as widely as the abilities and interests of any other normal group of children. Due to the breadth of their experiences from living and attending schools in different localities it is often true that their interests and achievement vary more widely than those of the children who have regularly attended the school they enter. Their concept of belonging, of security, and of achievement is likely to be different from that of the regular students in the school. The school programs which they

have experienced up to the point of transfer may have been quite different from the program of the school to be entered. All of this creates problems for the children, and for school personnel. The questions of where to place the children in the school program and how to help them make the transition from the programs in which they have participated to the program of the new school are critical.

The three groups mentioned to this point represent relatively specialized segments of our society—each with its unique characteristics. One thing the three groups have in common is the fact that their children do not remain long in a given school. They seldom remain in one place long enough to establish strong feelings of identity with the way of life or the people of the community. They achieve whatever sense of security they have through activities related to the transient nature of their patterns of living.

Children Whose Parents Move to a Permanent Location

In more recent years we have become aware of the fact that the problem of adequately caring for children who transfer from one school to another is not confined to special groups in society. Our whole population has become relatively mobile. A fourth group, then, is composed of people from all segments of society who have lived in one community on a permanent or relatively permanent basis, and for some reason decide to move to another community, usually on a similar basis. The group includes professional people such as doctors, lawyers, ministers, teachers (particularly college professors), and engineers. It also includes business executives, salesmen, construction engineers, construction workers, as well as skilled and unskilled workers of many types. As a rule these people move to secure more desirable employment or better living conditions.

This group differs from the other three groups considered in that they have been identified as permanent members of their community, and they usually expect to become identified as permanent members of the community to which they move. They are not in the habit of moving; hence, severing the ties with the old familiar community and establishing satisfactory ties in the new community are of great importance to them. For these families the process of moving can quite easily cause great personal tension, insecurity and unhappiness.

The children from this group are as diverse in ability and interests as are the children in the total population. The insecurities which they feel are as intense as the insecurities felt by their parents in moving into a new world. The schools from which they come and to which they go are as different as schools happen to be in our society. Helping

them make the transition to the new school with a minimum of unhappiness is a real problem for school personnel.

Children Who Move Because of Family Changes

A fifth group of children who change schools without moving to a different grade level includes children who for one reason or another have to leave one or both of their parents to live with other relatives or friends of the family. This may result from the death or serious illness of one of the parents, divorce or separation of the parents, economic reverses suffered by the family, or from a number of other possible causes. It happens to children who come from all social classes and backgrounds, and the children are as heterogeneous in ability, achievement and interests as the children in the total population.

The circumstances which cause this group to move often create serious emotional problems for the children involved. The disruption of the pattern of family relationships to which they have become accustomed often engenders feelings of insecurity. These feelings may carry over into other relationships and make it difficult indeed for the receiving school to provide satisfying and continuous educational experiences for the children. Clearly, in each case, the receiving school needs to know as much as possible about the circumstances which resulted in the move, the nature of the school program in which the child previously participated, and the kinds of success and/or failure which he experienced in that program. Even with this information at hand the school faces complex problems of where to place the child in the new school and how to help him make the transition to new teachers, new peers, and a new program of activities.

Children Whose Homes Are Reclassified as to School District

Because of the rapid growth of cities and shifts in the population density of residence areas, school attendance district lines are often relocated. This accounts for a sixth group of children who change schools on the same grade level. This group differs from the others mentioned because change of residence is not a factor, and also because usually several families in the same neighborhood are involved.

The problems for these children in making the transition to the new school are potentially as diverse and acute as they are for any other group. In some communities and for some children the problems are simple and the transition is made with minimum effort. In other communities, where the social class backgrounds of children attending schools in different localities vary greatly or where the school programs differ greatly, the problems of transition for the children may be

severe. In such cases a different pattern of accepted behavior in the peer group from that which was accepted in the former school often prevails in the new school. This can create confusion, unhappiness and insecurity for the child and may result in unsatisfactory achievement. Also, the attitudes of teachers toward pupils may be different in the new school, and this, too, can create confusion and insecurity in the new pupil. Moreover, where the social clientele of the new school differs from the old, the program of studies, also, often differs. The transferring pupil may find it necessary to discontinue courses he began in the former school and to begin in the middle of courses in the new school. These and other potential problems indicate clearly that teachers, guidance workers, and administrators in schools where pupils are transferred by changing district lines should do all in their power to make the transition as smooth as possible.

Other groups of children could be mentioned and their unique characteristics discussed. In general, however, the problems for them in transferring to a new school are likely to be somewhat similar to the problems faced by the groups already described.

Making a Smooth Transition to a New School Community

What can be done to help children make a smooth transition from one school community to another? What can be done to help the child articulate his past and his present experiences into a well-knit whole? When a child or adolescent moves from one school community to another, his problems are apt to center around: (a) getting placed in the new school in a program of studies in which his achievement will show continuity; (b) establishing satisfactory relationships with new teachers; and (c) achieving satisfactory status in his new peer group. The rest of this chapter suggests and gives examples of ways in which school children can be helped to accomplish these three adjustments with a minimum of difficulty. For contrast, several less desirable practices are included.

Placing the Child in the New School

In making his transition to a new school as smooth as possible it is of great importance to the child that he be placed in the new school program where he will have the greatest possible chance for satisfactory achievement. As indicated in the foregoing and in other chapters of this book, the school must take many factors into consideration if its efforts are to make this placement as effective as possible. Among these factors are the following: the kind of school program from which he came in comparison with the program of the school he is entering;

the quality of his achievement and general participation in former schools attended; the extent to which he has mastered learning skills necessary for success in the various grades of the school he is entering; his physical, social and emotional maturity; and how he feels about the change to the new school. The extent to which individual schools take account of these factors in placing new pupils can be implied from the practices which they employ in making the placement. A few such practices are described and discussed briefly in the following accounts.

Entering a new elementary school: In one twenty-teacher elementary school the principal places new pupils who come for enrollment. He welcomes the pupil and his parents. If the pupil brings any record of his previous school experience, or a final report card from a former school, the principal examines it to determine the youngster's placement. With this information before him, he checks the enrollment in the appropriate classes and assigns the new pupil to classes on this basis. Either he or his secretary then takes the child, or directs him, to the room to which he has been assigned and presents him to his new teacher. Clearly, in this school new pupils are placed with a view to keeping the classes of the various teachers approximately even in size, and with little or no concern for the factors enumerated above.

In another elementary school of comparable size the principal, or a teacher who has been designated to assist the principal with the placement of pupils, administers the enrollment and placement of new pupils. They also get whatever records of school achievement they can from the pupil in question. Through conversation with the pupil and his parents, if possible, they attempt to discover what his former school experiences were like and how he feels about them. They also try to discover what he knows about the school he is entering, whether or not he knows any pupils in the school who are near his age, or any of the teachers who teach his age group. In some cases they describe the nature of the work which is being done in several classes where he might be placed and ask him which seems to be most like the class from which he came. On the basis of impressions derived from this process, the child is placed tentatively with the teacher whose program appears to be most appropriate for him. He is introduced to this staff member and told that she will probably be his new teacher and that she will help him get started in the new school.

Following this tentative placement the principal attempts to verify the records which the pupil brought; or sends for his records, if he brought none, by writing to the principal of his former school. In the meantime the teacher with whom he has been tentatively placed assists

him in participating in the activities of the pupils in this room. As an aspect of the normal teaching procedures in this room the teacher utilizes various devices for identifying the child's status in skill mastery as compared with the group. The teacher administers informal teacher-made diagnostic tests and, in some cases where the need is indicated, standardized achievement tests. The teacher also observes the child's behavior with the other children in the class for evidences of satisfactory or unsatisfactory placement in terms of his social and emotional maturity.

During this early period in the school the pupil may also be encouraged to visit for a day, or a part of a day, with another class. This would be done in cases where the evidence indicates that the child's tentative placement may not be appropriate.

Within a week to ten days the principal, the teachers involved, the child and his parents, if possible, review the evidence at hand from all the sources indicated and agree upon where the child should be placed in the school. This becomes his "homeroom."

Entering a new junior high school: In a junior high school which serves about one-half of a county the enrollment is close to 1500 pupils. About two-thirds of the pupils live in the small city which is the county seat; the other one-third live in the surrounding rural area. In this school about half the classes are scheduled in such a way that pupils remain with their homeroom teacher for three consecutive periods in the seventh and eighth grades and two periods in the ninth grade. The work done with this teacher is called "Basic Education." This takes the place of conventional courses in English and social studies in the ninth grade, and of these plus science in the seventh and eighth grades. The remaining one-hour periods in the day are scheduled for courses such as mathematics, music, art, and physical education. The other half of the pupils are scheduled with one class period for each subject and a different teacher for each. Regular pupils in the school are assigned to one or the other of the two programs after the nature and opportunities provided in the two have been described to them and their parents. Additional guidance is available if needed. The guidance program of the school is administered by a full time coordinator of pupil personnel services and two half-time assistants, who work through the homeroom teachers.

The admission of new pupils during the year is administered by the pupil personnel staff. New pupils are sent first to this office where they are interviewed by a member of the guidance staff, and where they fill out a personal data sheet. In cases where the records of the pupil have been received from the school which he formerly attended,

the records are studied by the interviewer and serve as a partial guide in his conference with the pupil. When there are no records, the interviewer attempts to get as much information as possible from the pupil concerning his previous school experiences and achievement. The nature of the programs in which the pupil might be placed is briefly described to him; and the counselor, from the data at hand and his best judgment, tentatively assigns the pupil to a homeroom group. He follows the schedule of this group, with the teacher or teachers observing his participation with the group. In the meantime records are verified, needed tests to secure additional data are administered, and within a week to ten days final decisions are made concerning his permanent placement. In most cases the pupils remain with the groups where they were tentatively assigned.

Entering a new senior high school: The problem of placing new pupils in senior high schools is often more difficult than in junior high or elementary schools. The Carnegie unit system of accreditation for graduation and the differences in subject offerings and the grade placement of subjects in the curriculum often create serious problems for pupils who transfer from one school to another. For instance, a pupil who begins French and later finds it necessary to transfer to another school may find French is not offered in the new school. Or one who begins second year algebra or trigonometry in view of his college plan, on transferring to a new school, may find that second year algebra or trigonometry is not offered in the new school. Moreover, there are wide differences in the grade placement of various subjects in the high school curriculum, as well as in the content of the required courses in the curriculums of different schools.

Solving these transfer problems effectively for high school pupils is important for the same reasons that it is important to make the transition smoothly in elementary and junior high schools. It is particularly important for another reason. High school pupils have reached the age when compulsory attendance no longer applies; and when they become dissatisfied with school, they often drop out and the school loses its opportunity for helping them achieve maximum educational development.

The care with which different high schools approach the problem of properly placing new pupils in the curriculum varies as much as do the practices in preceding illustrations from elementary and junior high schools. Some attack the problem carelessly and others with great care. In one high school the preliminary procedures are practically identical with those followed by the junior high school previously described. On the basis of the data presented and the evidence secured by the pupil

personnel staff through conferences with the pupil in question, every effort is made to arrange a schedule of classes which will include courses with similar content to those which he began in his former school. Where the evidence indicates a different content, placement in courses is made in terms of the best judgment possible concerning the needs of the pupil. Care is taken to avoid the necessity for the pupil to lose credit toward graduation, even when it is necessary to place the pupil in courses offered on grade levels different from his actual grade classification. In cases where a course or courses which were important to him and begun in his former school are not offered in the new school, efforts are made to meet the needs represented by these courses. In some cases it is possible to substitute courses in the new school which meet these needs as well as those begun in the former school. In other cases a teacher in the new school takes the pupil on an individual basis and helps him complete the courses begun in the former school. In still other cases provision is made for the pupil to complete the needed course by correspondence.

Some handicaps to be overcome: Clearly, efforts to reduce interruptions of educational progress for transfer students vary from school to school. Teachers and administrators who take the problem seriously should seek to plan their contacts with these students in such a way as to take into account the various basic considerations which have been suggested in this yearbook in the areas of: (a) child growth, development and learning; (b) educational objectives; and (c) curriculum. (See Chapters 6 to 9 in Part Two.) Unfortunately, even those school people who are most conscious of these considerations are sometimes handicapped in putting into practice what they know to be true about child development, learning, objectives and curriculum. Some of the handicaps are: inadequate information concerning the pupil's previous history and present status, inadequate staff personnel to deal with the problems, and already existing curriculums which may be inconsistent with avowed purposes of education and known facts about human growth and learning. Of these handicaps, inadequate personnel is beyond the scope of this yearbook and curriculum revision is necessarily a slow and gradual process if it is to be most effective; but the improvement of records and their use is a handicap which can be approached rather directly and within a comparatively short time. For that reason, some comments are in order here as to the use of records as an aid to smoothing the child's learning path as he transfers from one school community to another.

Records and the use of records: Pupil personnel records and their use in cases of children who change schools involve both schools

related to the transfer. If the sending school maintains inadequate records or fails to transmit to the receiving school whatever records it has on a given pupil, obviously the latter school is handicapped in its efforts to place the pupil properly. Conversely, if the staff of the receiving school is unable to interpret the records of a pupil meaningfully, their efforts to place the pupil on the basis of his record will be ineffective. Some causes of difficulties in interpreting records are: lack of agreement on standard procedures in record keeping; differences in grading and evaluation procedures; failure to record standardized test data on record forms in such a way that the data can be properly interpreted by others; failure to include evidences of pupil progress and adjustment that are not subject to objective scores. Other difficulties arise from conditions outside the control of the school. Some pupils leave school without informing their teachers that they are leaving, or where they are going; others inform their teachers that they are leaving but are unable to say where they are going; still others enter schools in their new community that are different from the schools they expected to enter; and some pupils even move to communities far away from those they expected to move to at the time they left. Hence, in some cases records are never sent to the receiving school and in others they are sent to the wrong school. Some promising practices for dealing with these problems are indicated in the following description of the procedures utilized by one school.

In Suburbia Junior High School each homeroom teacher makes a serious effort to maintain accurate records of achievement on every one of the pupils in his homeroom. For each pupil there is a record folder which includes a personal data card, an achievement and test data card, a record of participation summary card, dated samples of written work done by the pupil, test answer sheets for standardized tests taken, anecdotal descriptions of the pupil's behavior in various types of situations, a record of evaluative conferences held with the pupil and a summary of agreements reached, and any other similar material which the teacher feels is important to give a clear picture of the pupil's growth. The personal data card includes the usual information, such as: date of birth, home address, names and marital status of parents or guardians, brothers and sisters (with ages), and health records. The achievement and test data card includes names and dates of previous schools attended, grades assigned by teachers in previous courses taken, and a record of standardized tests taken with scores achieved. For each standardized test item the name and form of the test, and date it was taken and the type of score (i.e., raw, percentile, etc.) are given. The record of participation summary card includes information on the pupil's record

in class and other pupil activities—club memberships (school and extraschool, such as scouts), offices held, honors received, or any other school activity.

When new pupils enter this school from the local elementary schools, their records achieved in the elementary schools are transferred to Suburbia Junior High. When new pupils come from other schools their tentative placement is made in a manner similar to that used in the junior high school described earlier. Immediate efforts are made to secure pupils' records from their previous schools before final placement. Whatever information is received forms the beginning of the record folder for the pupil in Suburbia; this is supplemented as rapidly as possible by records of what he does in the new school according to the forms indicated above.

Many of the pupils who have to transfer to other schools from Suburbia know they are going to move early enough to ask their teachers to prepare their report cards for them so that they can enter the new school in the proper grade. When this is the case, the teachers prepare the report card and in addition write a letter to the principal of the school which the pupil will enter. Both the report card and letter are given to the pupil, who is told to give them to the principal of his new school. The following is typical of the letters written for the pupils who move from this school and may illustrate how helpful such a letter can be in placing the pupil in his new school.

Suburbia, Any State
January 15, 1958

To the Principal of the school
Jimmy Smith will enter about
February 1, 1958

Dear Sir:

Jimmy Smith has attended Suburbia Junior High School since September 1956 when he entered the seventh grade. He came to us from one of our local elementary schools where he completed the work of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. His first three years in school were spent in "Oldtown," where his father was employed as superintendent on a large construction project. Jimmy was in the eighth grade here at the time he moved with his family (his parents and a sister three years older than Jimmy) to your city.

In scholastic work Jimmy's record is above average over-all. In mathematics and science his teachers rate him very high; his achievement in social studies has been a little better than average; and in English it has been satisfactory. His achievement reflects his interests. His aptitude for learning in all the areas studied so far is excellent. Our tests indicate that he reads well as compared with eighth grade pupils throughout the country; his mastery of mathematics skills and science concepts is quite adequate for eighth grade.

Jimmy dropped out of scouting when he was in the seventh grade. He has been fairly active in student activities other than athletics. He represented his homeroom on the Student Council for a three months term, and served as vice-president of his class one term. He has served as chairman of either the stage properties committee or the lighting committee for several assembly programs which his class has presented. In each case he did a good job. He has attended very few of the social events sponsored by the school.

His report card shows that he was taking English, mathematics, health, science, and civics. These courses were taught by his homeroom teacher in a three hour block. He was also taking physical education, industrial arts (wood shop), and band. We hope that you will be able to place him in a similar program of studies.

We shall be glad to send you his complete school record upon request.

Sincerely,

B. Jones, Section III 8th Grade Teacher

J. Brown, Principal

When pupils leave without notifying their teachers, efforts are made to contact them through their friends in school; and when they are located the report card and letter are sent to them.

This procedure is an attempt on the part of the sending school to help the receiving school place the pupil to best advantage in the new school. It gives sufficient information for the receiving school to make a sound judgment concerning the place in which the pupil will likely make most progress in the new school. It also makes clear to the new school where it can secure the complete record of the pupil as a basis for more permanent placement and for evaluating his progress in the new school.

Procedures such as these are only first steps in the process of assuring that pupils who move from school to school do so with a minimum interruption of their educational progress. Such procedures can only provide that the pupils will be placed in the new school in the best situations possible for them. From this point on what happens to these pupils is determined largely by the nature of the school program, including specifically: what the teachers with whom they are placed are like and what they do, their relationships with their new peer groups, and their participation in the extracurricular activities program of the school.

Establishing Relationships with New Teachers

Children and youth who participated in the research reported in Part One of this book attached great significance to teacher behavior as a factor in situations involving either good or poor articulation. Two-

thirds of the incidents of good or poor articulation involved another person or persons, and the highest proportion of these "personal" incidents related to teacher behavior. This might be expected, since educational psychology, educational sociology and practical experience stress the importance of the teacher's role in promoting effective learning by children in school. The child's appraisal of the teacher's behavior and his perception of his relationships with the teacher are, without doubt, important factors in determining the pupil's behavior in school and consequently the effectiveness of the school in fostering learning on his part. It follows, therefore, that what teachers do in their relationships with new pupils entering their classrooms is of great significance in determining whether or not the pupil's transition to the new school will be smooth. This, of course, applies at all grade levels, but it is perhaps of most importance in the high school where transfer pupils have to adjust not to just one but to several different new teacher personalities.

What can teachers do to help these new pupils establish mutually satisfactory relationships? Psychologically speaking, we might say this is largely a matter of class atmosphere. Where the teacher is sensitive to the feelings of youngsters, and recognizes the basic worth of each individual, this attitude will carry over to the pupils in his class. The class atmosphere, in other words, will be one in which a mutual recognition of individuals as important and distinctive prevails. In such an atmosphere pupils who have been in the room all along will recognize that they have responsibilities to the new pupil, and the new pupil will recognize that he has responsibilities to his new teacher and classmates.

Involving the new pupil in class activities: The teacher's sensitivity to the reactions of other pupils also has much to do with the success or failure of attempts to involve a new student in class activities. A teacher lacking this sensitivity pushed a child too fast in trying to get him to participate too soon in class discussion. She asked him a direct question on the day's lesson. When he could not answer, she commented, "I guess you either have not studied today's lesson or else you came to us from a poor school." Some of the other pupils snickered, some looked embarrassed. The pupil was obviously further from adjustment to the new situation than he had been before the teacher made this unwise observation.

In contrast, another teacher worked with a core class in which the pupils studied problems which were of concern to them. They participated in choosing these problems and in planning ways of studying them. When a new pupil came into the class the teacher explained what was going on and asked him what committee he would like to join. She introduced him to the members of the committee he selected and they,

in turn, helped him find a way in which he could contribute to their work. This pupil gained in self-respect, in his respect for his peers, and in his respect for the teacher. The experience helped him see himself as adequate, his peers as friends, and his teacher as an adult friend and guide who wanted to help him.

As indicated in Chapter 9, the type of curriculum being pursued in these contrasted examples also had a bearing upon the ability of the teacher to aid the student in becoming a working member of the new group.

Visiting pupils' homes: In addition to direct approaches, teachers can indirectly help new pupils gain confidence and feel secure with the new teacher. For instance, young children particularly are dependent to a great extent upon their parents for security. Recognizing this, teachers will make efforts to get to know the parents of new pupils in their classes. To illustrate this point, the faculty of a junior high school which enrolls children from both a small city and the surrounding rural area has adopted a plan by which each teacher will visit in the home of every pupil in his homeroom. During preschool conference periods the teachers schedule days for visiting the homes of the pupils who will be in their rooms when school opens. When new pupils are assigned to their homerooms during the year (and this happens to all the teachers since the school is located in a tourist area), teachers visit the homes after school hours and/or on Saturday mornings. During these short visits the teachers talk briefly about the general characteristics of the school. They answer questions the parents ask, invite the parents to participate in P.T.A. and to come to the school for conferences about their children both when such conferences are scheduled and when the parents feel that they need further information about their children's progress.

One teacher's way of making new pupils feel at home: An illustration of what one teacher does to help new pupils assigned to her room during the year summarizes, in a sense, what has been said to this point on what teachers can do to help these pupils relate themselves satisfactorily to their new teachers. Miss D. is a seventh grade teacher in a university campus school. The school program is organized on a K-6-3-3 plan. In the seventh grade the pupils remain with their homeroom teachers four periods of the school day and go to other teachers for physical education, art, and music during the remaining two periods. The work in the four periods with the homeroom teacher includes a core program which centers attention on activities and study related to problems of significance to the pupils, and time devoted to the improvement of skills mastery in areas such as mechanics of English and

arithmetic. The work on skills is, in a sense, an extension of the core program for the pupils because it centers on needed skills identified by pupils with the help of the teacher. It includes both group work on common skills problems and individual work according to the specific needs of pupils.

Miss D. organizes her seventh grade in such way that there is much participation by pupils in planning class activities. As part of this planning the teacher sees to it that provisions are made to help all pupils in the group become participating members of the class. When a new pupil arrives, therefore, he is included in the class activities by Miss D. and by the other pupils. He is welcomed by the teacher, introduced to the class and assigned a desk (in this case an individual table and chair which can be used individually or arranged with a cluster of similar tables and chairs for group work), and assigned a "buddy" to whom he is introduced personally. During the first two or three days he is in school his "buddy" helps him become acquainted with the other members of the class, goes with him to various places in the school, as necessary, such as the library, cafeteria and gymnasium, and helps him learn what is expected of him by teachers and by the other pupils. In the meantime Miss D. acquaints the new pupil with the work which is in progress, helps him choose where he will begin work, and helps him find the materials he will need. Within the first few days he is in school, after the teacher has had an opportunity to study any records which have been secured and has observed the pupil's behavior in class, Miss D. has an individual conference with the new pupil. In this conference she talks with him about his experiences in his former school, and gets as much information as she can about the teaching procedures to which he is accustomed, his special interests, activities in which he participated, and in general as much as she can about him as a person. She also acquaints him more fully with the nature of the program he has entered and suggests things which he can do to become a successful member of his new class group. In later teaching situations she uses the information she gets to provide opportunities for the new pupil to contribute to class activities and to plan study to meet his special needs. If at all possible, Miss D. also has a conference with the parents soon after the child enters her room. In this conference she gets as much information as she can from the parents about their child, acquaints the parents with the nature of the school program, and tries to make them feel "comfortable" about their child's new school.

What this teacher does in her attempts to help new pupils make their transition to the new school smooth and profitable is easier for her than it is for many teachers. The emphasis on real problems of

pupils in the school program and the fact that she has the pupils for a major portion of the day both are helpful in her efforts. This, however, does not mean that teachers in strictly departmentalized situations either in elementary, junior high, or senior high schools cannot do most of the things this teacher does to preserve continuity in learning on the part of the child.

Nine ways teachers can help: Any qualified teacher regardless of what he teaches can (a) devise ways to get pupils to relate themselves meaningfully to their classes, (b) welcome the new pupil to his class, (c) introduce him to the class as a group, (d) assign and introduce him to a "buddy" in the class who will help him find his way around, (e) through conference with the pupil and a study of his record and performance help him get started successfully either in the course taught by this teacher or in one which the data indicates might be more appropriate to his needs, (f) interpret to the pupil the requirements of the course and the ways of working in the class, (g) make efforts to become acquainted with his parents and interpret the school program to them, (h) help the new pupil secure materials which he needs in the course, and (i) help him plan ways of working that will contribute toward success.

These, of course, are not all the means of helping new pupils become accustomed to new teachers and their procedures. Neither must every teacher do all of these things in serial order with every new pupil in order to assure a satisfactory adjustment to the new teacher. They do represent practices which indicate desirable directions for the efforts of teachers concerned with this problem.

Achieving Status in a New Peer Group

Research reported in Part One shows that many of the articulation incidents involve relations of the children with their own age mates or peer group. It is common knowledge from experience as well as systematic research that one's perception of his status with his peers is an important factor in determining his success. This is particularly true of junior high and senior high school age youth, for whom an important developmental task is the development of new and satisfactory relationships with their age mates. It is important, therefore, to consider what schools can do to help new pupils achieve satisfactory status with their peers in the new school.

Efforts of the placement office in assigning the new pupil to a group appropriate to his achievement and interest, and efforts of the teacher to whom he is assigned to facilitate his early participation in the group are of importance here.

In general it has been found that slow and/or retarded learners achieve best and also relate themselves to their peers best when they are in groups in which they are not the only slow or retarded learners. It is also apparent that pupils with superior learning ability and achievement achieve best and relate themselves most satisfactorily to their peers in groups where they find others with interests similar to their interests. In some schools, therefore, the placement office exercises care in placing identified slow learning pupils in groups where they will find one or more pupils similarly handicapped. Similarly, care is also exercised to place identified rapid learners in groups where they will find pupils who have interests similar to their own. As a general policy the placement office is careful to assign new pupils to groups where they will find some other pupils with comparable backgrounds of achievement and expressed interests. The problem here, of course, results from the fact that data on which to base such decisions is often inadequate. In such cases, as pointed out earlier, efforts are made to fill in the gaps before permanent placement is made.

Another factor affecting the process of youth's achieving satisfactory status with their peers is differences in social class. New pupils coming into a school where the social class status of the pupils with whom they are assigned is radically different from their own status find it difficult to achieve satisfactory status with the group. Here, again, in some schools the placement office makes a deliberate effort to see to it that new pupils are assigned to rooms in which they will find some pupils with social class backgrounds similar to their own. Through this practice it is believed that the new pupil will more likely find pupils in the new group with whom he can associate with a feeling of security and belonging.

There are some schools which see the problem of social class differences as much more complex than merely placing pupils of similar class backgrounds together. The faculty of one of these schools takes the position that schools, particularly junior and senior high schools, have a responsibility for helping youth gain an understanding of the phenomenon of social class differences in America and mastering skills needed for working with people from the different classes. This faculty believes also that the best way to achieve these purposes is to involve pupils from different social class backgrounds in working on problems which are of common concern to them. In this school new pupils are therefore placed, insofar as possible, in groups where their records and other data indicate they will be able to participate most effectively. In line with these school objectives, the pupils are often involved in working on problems of improving their own peer group relationships.

New pupils in a group, therefore, are soon involved in working on problems of common concern. Through their participation and growth in understanding they are aided, in this way, in achieving acceptance and status with their peers.

The schools in one tourist area recognize their responsibility for helping new pupils gain status with other pupils. In each classroom, pupil committees have been organized to welcome new pupils. These committees help in orienting the new pupils to the school in many ways, such as assisting with their early classroom assignments, showing them how to get to the various places they need to go in the building, explaining various school regulations, or helping them become participants in extracurricular activities. In another community, assisting new pupils in their orientation to the school is a Student Council project, and regularly constituted committees of the council see to it that newcomers are welcomed to the student body and given the help they need in establishing themselves satisfactorily in all appropriate activities in the school.

Chapter Summary

Contemporary society in the United States is characterized by a high degree of mobility. Consequently, it is not surprising that the research study reported in Part One shows 27% of the articulation situations reported by the children to be concerned with moving to a new school community. The present chapter describes six particular types of children who move from community to community and who therefore have to make adjustments to new school situations. Three of these types whose particular problems are considered are the children of migratory workers, of tourists, and of military personnel—all three being subject to frequent moves. Three other types do not usually move so often; they are the children of persons who move to supposedly permanent locations, children who move because of family changes, and children who stay in the same home but change school districts because of reclassification.

The major part of the chapter is devoted to suggestions for helping children make the necessary adjustments to the new school and to examples of current school practices which vary somewhat in their effectiveness in promoting better continuity of children's school experiences. These suggestions and examples are organized in terms of: (a) proper placement of the transient pupil in the new school, with special attention to types of records and ways in which these may be used; (b) establishing satisfactory relationships between the new pupil and his new teachers; and (c) helping the transfer pupil achieve satisfactory status among his fellow pupils. The suggestions offered by no

means exhaust the possibilities. A few less desirable practices are mentioned, along with a wider sampling of more desirable procedures in order to suggest some of the contrasts which exist.

Throughout the chapter the reader is reminded of the individual character of each transfer student, teachers and pupils he meets in the new situation, and total school situations in both the old and the new schools. This individuality of personalities and situations demands solutions which are custom-made for each case; at the same time, certain basic principles set forth in Part Two of the yearbook and in this chapter will still apply.

Orienting Children and Youth to New School Levels

IN PLANNING a trip by public transportation, an experienced traveler who wants to get to his destination quickly and with efficiency is apt to choose the plane or train or bus route which involves the fewest "changes." The timid traveler also prefers the nonstop flight or the through train or bus, because he is concerned about making his connections at stop-over points along the way. There are fewer chances of "something going wrong" when there are fewer changes to be made.

So is it also with children as they take their educational journey from the beginner's level through the senior high school. The transition points are points of concern for many children. The organization of the school into 12 or 13 sequential grade steps with widely varying, though more-or-less established, standards and expectancies for each level has fostered the emergence of problems at the points where children progress from step to step or grade to grade within the school organization. Teachers and school administrators have long recognized that the problems relating to children's continuous progress through school seem to be accentuated at those points in the school organization where administrative units change from one level to another—primary to intermediate grades, intermediate grades to junior high school, and junior high school to senior high school.

The purposes of this chapter are: (a) to explore some facets of the problem of the orientation of school children to new school levels and (b) to examine some selected illustrations of practices which have been tried in orienting children to new school levels. Related problems of moving along smoothly from grade to grade within a school level—for example, the elementary school—and through any single grade are considered in Chapter 13.

Teachers Express Concern

Comments gathered by yearbook committee members from teachers indicate that they are concerned about the problems affecting children's continuous progress through the step-by-step organization of the school. Here are some typical comments:

"In the sixth grade, children are accustomed to one teacher where in the seventh grade the work is departmentalized. The change caused problems."

"Pupils do not know the fundamentals of arithmetic, consequently they have a difficult time learning algebra."

"The senior high school feels that the junior high school has not taught the fundamentals and will not accept the pupil as he is when he reaches the ninth grade."

"We have observed that the ninth grade pupils don't know how to use the tools of the library to study."

These samples of statements by teachers suggest some confusion and disagreement regarding their expectancies for children's learnings at the various levels in school. The organization of the school and the ways of teaching are indicated also as sources of some of the difficulties of children as they move along through the various administrative units of the school system. These units may be a six year elementary school, a three year junior high school, and a three year senior high school. Or they may be organized in several other patterns. Whether the child moves from elementary to high school between the sixth and seventh grades or between the eighth and ninth grades, he still has an adjustment to make.

Children Express Concern

Thoughtful and considered exploration and study of the difficulties of children as they progress through the 12 or 13 years of school suggest that the problems of articulation (or continuous progress through school) are much more insistent and continuous than once appeared to be true. This is evidenced by drop-outs, nonpromotion, and the poor adjustment of students as they move to new school levels. Data in Chapter 2 reveal that, as students themselves see it, moving from a school in one community to a new school in a different community leads in importance all other factors related to helping or hindering their smooth progress through school.¹ The second and third ranking situations, according to frequency of report by students, relate specifically to teacher behavior and subject matter. Moving to a new level in school ranks fourth in frequency of mention by students. It represents, how-

¹ This topic is dealt with in Chapter 11 of this book.

ever, the situation, event or problem most frequently mentioned for the junior high school level and second most frequently mentioned for the senior high level.² An interpretation of the increased importance of moving to a new school level as shown in the responses of the Grades 7-9 and Grades 10-12 groups should be related to the physical and psychological development of children at these levels, as well as the external conditions.

Purposes in Orientation to New School Levels

Procedures which work well in orienting children to new school levels in one school may or may not be helpful in another school. Whether or not any orientation procedure is effective in a given setting depends on how well it serves the basic purposes of the orientation process.

Part Two of this book suggests certain basic considerations in these areas: child growth, development and learning; educational objectives; and curriculum. The purposes of any orientation program should be consistent with the ideas already developed in these three areas. A careful study of children's comments about helps and hindrances to their school progress (reviewed in Part One of this book) suggests three purposes of orientation procedures which are clearly consistent with the basic considerations set forth in Part Two. These three purposes also serve as guides when we attempt to evaluate the appropriateness or the effectiveness of any orientation procedure in a particular school. They are: (a) maintaining a security balance from the old and familiar to the new and strange; (b) developing continuity for the individual and continuity for the group; and (c) improving human relations through appropriate administrative procedures.

Some exploration of these three purposes may serve as a frame of reference for later examination of illustrations of orientation practices in the latter part of this chapter.

Maintaining Security as One Moves to the New and Strange

Moving from one school level to another necessarily implies introducing into a student's life strange people, new expectancies, and unexplored places and materials. Dealing with these will be for many students an exhilarating part of the growing-up process. One junior high school child expresses this reaction. He says:

"I looked forward to moving from the elementary to junior high and it was more fun than I had anticipated. I really enjoyed the move, and I felt that I was starting to grow up."

Another thirteen year old says:

² Graphs IV and V on p. 28 and 29, or Table 2 in Appendix B.

"I think that changing from sixth to seventh grade has helped me because instead of only one teacher you have many and to me this is a responsibility, for you are not under any teacher's wing. You are on your own to see that your school work gets done."

However, there is evidence that for many children the move or change is anticipated with great anxiety. The following quotes from children's responses are samples of the anxiety that many children expressed:

"I believe I was most frightened and afraid of going to first grade. I was afraid of my teacher and being around so many new children. Being away from my mother frightened me because she was always with me before."

"When I entered the tenth grade this year I had a feeling that I cannot describe. It was a feeling that I was going to be kidded and picked on."

"I have been in school for the past ten years. One thing or one year especially difficult for me was my seventh grade year. The teachers in grade school had told me a lot about junior high which frightened me. I wasn't used to the school program and was very confused. Mostly having so many teachers and classes. I would like to go back and start school all over, but omit some awful experiences."

Of course, the school should not be held responsible for all the anxieties which children have in relation to moving through school. It is evident, even in the few statements quoted, that the source of a child's anxiety may well lie in his out-of-school life. But the school is an institution that can and should attempt to help children face and deal with new and strange situations with increasing confidence.

In Chapter 4 it was noted that 46% of the total 536 student reactions related to moving to a new school unit were positive—happy, confident, successful—responses, while 54% were negative responses—strange, shy, afraid or just generalized negative. (See Graph XII, p. 52.) Surely, when well over half of the student reactions to the change in school levels reveal negative feelings, thought should be given to examining the situation for ways to alleviate feelings of anxiety. Individuals who live with feelings of fear and anxiety are using energy that might better go into more constructive learnings. Attempts should be made, therefore, to introduce orientation procedures in school that may help students build the confidence and adequacy they need to operate successfully at the new school level.

Frequently fear and shyness can be overcome when an individual knows more about that which he fears. Strength to deal more intelligently with a new situation can be built through knowing the facts about what one is facing. As children move through the various levels in the elementary school and junior and senior high schools, they and their parents may be relieved of potential anxieties if they are helped to understand better the next school level.

Surely at no time in their school years do children and their parents know less of what to expect of the new situation than at children's first school entrance. Teachers, school administrators, and other school personnel are revealing a growing awareness of the need to give parents of beginning-school-age children information about what school will be like for their child.

Group and individual conferences serve in many communities to give parents information about the school and to point out ways in which they can help their children to get a good start in school, thus relaxing many of the usual tensions. Letters sent to welcome children and to describe the first day's plans and activities have been successfully used by kindergarten and first grade teachers. These serve to help children understand that going to school can be interesting and fun and need not be feared. An example of such a letter is given later in this chapter.

To help older children build security to move into a new school level, elementary schools may invite back some of their "alumni" who have moved on to junior high school to talk with the sixth grade students about different phases of the school program and school living. To be most effective such sessions would need to be informal and intimate enough to encourage the younger students to ask questions freely. This procedure is adaptable, of course, to help junior high students know more of what to expect of senior high school. Other persons who sometimes come to give the students information and answer questions about the new situation are the junior or senior high school counselors, selected teachers, student council members or the principal.

Open-house visiting days (or half days) and special assemblies are samples of experimental procedures which have been tried. Such experiences bring the students into the new situation on a kind of trial-run basis. The students have an opportunity to get acquainted with the people, the physical plant, and perhaps get somewhat of a feeling for the routines of the new school situation.

Printed materials prepared to give students and their parents information about the new school are frequently used in larger schools. Many schools have some kind of brochure or handbook to give to the parents of children entering school for the first time. These give helpful information for the parents who, if their own anxieties are removed, will in turn help their children to feel less fear of the new situation. Not all such printed materials contain information addressed to the child, but it would be a simple matter to include a brief section for the child to help him to know more of what to expect at school.

Student handbooks for older students are usually prepared by the

students or with their assistance. Thus, they are likely to contain the information desired by in-coming students.

The following evaluations were made by junior high school children in situations where some of the procedures described above were used:

"I think that the teachers and the Student Council have given a lot of time and effort to helping me enter the eighth grade. They try very hard to have you enjoy the eighth grade and try to help you with the new problems that should or might come along while you are still in the seventh grade."

"The guide book, our names and classes being flashed on a screen, and guides in the hall telling us where rooms were if we didn't know helped me. During the first few days if I got lost it made me late for class and I'd have to get a late pass."

The teacher is the key person in the school to help students maintain their security balance from old and familiar experiences to new and strange ones. This is true whether the move anticipated be from home to the first grade or from the junior to the senior high school or from tenth grade English to an eleventh grade elective in American literature or business English or creative writing.

Teachers will find their own ways to talk and work with students to build understanding and acceptance of the expectancies and changes which may be anticipated at the new school level. In order for a teacher to help students prepare for meeting the new expectancies he himself will need to know: (a) What is the new situation like? What will be expected of these pupils? (b) Why does the next school level have these expectancies? (c) How can the pupils deal most effectively with what is expected of them?

As a teacher becomes informed about the organization, curriculum practices, and materials of the next level for his group of children he may find conditions with which he does not agree. There may be need to challenge highly departmentalized junior high schools (or elementary schools) or rigid scope and sequence curriculum content requirements or the use of tests, assignments and materials that do not take into account the individual differences of children. Issues such as these should be examined together by school faculties. Teachers at higher levels need to learn about the situations from which their pupils come; teachers at lower levels need to learn about the situations to which their pupils go. Each should be willing to take constructive criticism from the other. But while these problems are being worked on, children are moving through school and need help to anticipate and understand the changes which they must face.

Sometimes when children move from the elementary school where they have had the personal interest and guidance of one person quite close to them, they may need help in understanding that the change will involve (if it does) contacts with more teachers; new kinds of tests, assignments and homework responsibilities; and new ways of functioning in student groups. Rather than attempting to set up in the sixth grade a departmentalized structure (for practice), a teacher can contribute by talking over with children these changes and explaining how the situation will differ from the present one. Sometimes teachers can give help by trying kinds of tests and homework assignments that may be anticipated.

In addition, the teacher can help build strength for new situations by discussing the role of the homeroom teacher and the counselors in the school to which the children will go. Merely helping children to know something of what to expect at the next school level is not enough to maintain a security balance for them. Children need the help of adults they believe in who understand the anticipated expectancies and can offer guidance for dealing with the new and strange forthcoming relationships, events and situations.

Developing Continuity for the Individual and for the Group

A teacher or a school concerned with providing successful orientation for children to any new school level needs to keep in mind that continuity for each student is first an individual matter. But individuals live and relate to each other as they grow personally, socially, emotionally and intellectually. A student can progress more successfully as he conceives himself to be worthy and adequate with other individuals. Schools are established by society to bring children together in groups in order to foster the process of growth in relation to the individual needs of each child and the needs of society. This is a complex and difficult task to accomplish. It has become increasingly difficult as all the children of all the people have brought their extreme ranges of individual potential and experiences into the public schools. This means then that the school has a responsibility to provide conditions and experiences that nurture the continuity of individual growth within a framework that also fosters continuity for groups.

Bringing children together in grade groups and in primary, intermediate, junior and senior high school levels are organizational attempts to provide continuity for groups of children. Within any one of these groups or levels there is always a wide differential in the various aspects of the growth of the individual members of the group. Each individual has first to be true to his own potential for growth—physically, socially

and intellectually. An individual can be nurtured but not forced to develop a strong, healthy, functioning body. Likewise, each child can be given experiences that foster healthful intellectual and social learnings, but he cannot be forced to come out with the same intellectual and social learnings as every other child in the group. It is easy enough to see and accept that not every boy or girl will grow to be 60 inches tall before he moves into junior high school. But many teachers are disturbed when a third of their fourth graders come to them still reading at the third grade level.⁸

Serious problems result for many children when the attempts to provide for continuity of growth and learning are made for total groups as if the individuals in those groups were all the same. Through the years schools have struggled with the problem of providing continuity for groups. Minimum essentials or specific subject matter learnings have been listed for the various grades and subjects. The arrangement of expected learnings into scope and sequence order was for the purpose of assuring continuity of learning for groups of children as they progress through school. But always there have been the great numbers of individual children who either did not accomplish these minimum expectancies or whose learnings far exceeded the teaching geared to such orderly curriculum plans.

The following responses from children express awareness of their own differences. Some of the comments also indicate how these individual differences have been a source of trouble for them.

"I have to learn too fast. I like to take my time and soak it all in."

"Not being a top reader has kept me from progressing smoothly. I don't do my reading well."

"I work too slow. I get average grades but it takes a little longer."

"Because I can read just about anything, I felt too young in the grade I am in."

"Up to about the fourth grade I really did good work and got good grades. Then work began getting harder for me. It wasn't that I got bad grades. It was just that I found I had to study much harder to receive such grades. My father told me the reason my grades started to drop and work began to be harder for me was because my mind wouldn't comprehend fast enough. That meant that it would take me more time for something than it would take someone of higher caliber."

Different beliefs as to the purposes of the various levels in school accentuate the problem of providing for individual continuity within

⁸ See Chapter 8, "Considering Educational Objectives," p. 122. "The levels of attainment of objectives for each student should be, qualitatively and quantitatively, those which are appropriate to each student, not those assumed to be appropriate for a mythical 'average child.'"

groups. Some persons believe that successful continuity is to be accomplished through fulfilling the fixed expectancies of grade level standards. This would result in practices which would more clearly identify and standardize grade level expectancies and then would seek to bring students up to these standards. Others accept the point of view that individuals differ widely in development and learning and can only be helped to achieve continuity of growth individually and in groups through other means. For those who hold the latter viewpoint there are the problems of providing curriculum experiences and materials and a school organization that honor differences and thus help each child to fulfill purposes of education that are realistic for him.

The actual values on which a particular teacher or school operates frequently are not as sharply defined as either of the above statements. Out of confused or conflicting beliefs about the purposes of the educational program at various levels come many of the problems that interfere with children's continuous progress in school.

Teachers speak of this aspect of the problem in the following ways:

"There are conflicts in the aims and goals of the school in general. Many teachers feel that some things are just first grade work, other things belong to other grades. They do not consider the total developmental process. In our city there are too rigid curriculum guides of what must be taught and when."

"The teachers and administration seem to have a limited knowledge of the over-all picture of education. Each teacher is primarily concerned with teaching one set of things to all the children in her room. Very few do individual teaching."

Differences in philosophy as to the purposes of each school level bring problems in developing curriculum experiences that fulfill the needs of a wide range of individual differences of children. Any attempt to build continuity for groups moving from level to level is sure to fail for many children if it is based on expecting all children to acquire the same specific knowledge, facts or skills. Scope and sequence for curriculum planning centered in subject matter likewise denies individual continuity. The question remains: How can teachers and schools work toward developing continuity for groups as children move from level to level in their educational process?⁴

Five cues to ways of building continuity for individual children and groups of children are illustrated here by quotations from school children who participated in the research study reported in Part One.

1. *New learnings at any level need to be related to and built on learnings already attained.* Teachers need to explore with groups of

⁴ This phase of the problem is considered in more detail in Chapter 9.

children what they already know in an area of study or on a topic rather than always telling them what concepts and skills and facts they must learn at a particular time.

"During my fifth and sixth years in the elementary school we did not have very much science, and when I first came to this school (seventh grade) we were expected to know quite a bit more than I had ever learned about which has made it difficult for me in science all year."

"Some of my teachers didn't teach science or social studies till I got in the fourth grade. Then it was hard for me." (This kind of evaluation may indicate as stated that the children did not have experiences in these areas or that they did but the experiences were not so designated or labeled until fourth grade. It does indicate that the expectancies changed in ways that resulted in problems for children.)

2. *Interest is one indicator of readiness for new learnings.* Interest is related to the maturity and background of experiences of an individual. Through new and varied materials and group activities individuals can work together on compatible interests which contribute to continuity in learning.

"Some of the teachers a school hands you, *man!* They don't try to mix the subject or in other words they don't try to make subjects interesting enough. If they teach a subject they follow the school books and never bother if all the students are interested or if any are bored stiff. I mean everybody isn't going to like it but the school should teach the teachers to have more things in general so at least the majority of the class would be more interested."

3. *The plea for the pupils' right to share in more of the decisions which affect them becomes stronger as they progress through school.* One fifteen year old says:

"I think grammar school should prepare the students for junior high by giving them more decisions to make for themselves."

Teachers at every school level need to examine the program for opportunities which allow children: (a) to share in the planning and decision making, (b) to learn the ways to work together in groups, and (c) to take responsibility for individual contributions to the group. Out of these ways of working can be built continuity for groups that honors and makes use of the many and varied individual potentialities.

4. *The ways in which teachers relate to pupils and the methods they use in teaching are powerful factors in developing continuity for individuals and for groups.* Pupils at all levels need friendly teachers who understand how to help them with those areas of learning that they find difficult. Several quotes from statements made by children and youth serve to highlight how they feel about this:

"When I was in the lower grades I just couldn't learn to read but now I can really read. I don't know how it happened but it did. I know one thing though I sure did need help and the teachers didn't help me but now our teachers really help us especially my teacher."

"Some teachers have embarrassed me very bad. When I try and can't do a thing they start yelling or saying, 'Why didn't you learn your lesson?' I had studied it but needed some more explaining. Also, if you can't do something like oral work too good and the teacher gives you E or O for the day I think she should help you more until you can overcome the fright of saying oral work."

5. *The quality of interpersonal relationships which children establish with each other fosters continuity for groups of children as they move from level to level through school.* Many children enter school knowing more about how to get along with the adults in their world than they do about getting along with their age mates. Part of the school's job is to help children learn the ways of successful living with their age mates and others in the school communities of which they are members.

For some children, as with adults, there is greater need and potential for outgoing interaction with groups of people than there is for others. Some individuals may achieve their most creative responses in group situations while others need the protection of quiet space and time with fewer individuals. But all need the security of having friends. On this point pupils say:

"In the sixth grade the girls were mean to me and they ran away from me and made me cry for friends."

"I couldn't do schoolwork knowing that hardly anybody liked me. In math you have to think hard but I couldn't very well. The thought of no friends would keep coming back and I couldn't think. But that year I did have something that no one else in class had done. It was drawing. My teacher would show the class the pictures I drew in history. Even the teacher sort of treated me like I wasn't there. Then this year one girl came along that was in my room and we started going together. We are still going together now and I hope we will for a long time to come. Since I started going with her I have met many friends now in junior high. I wasn't worried about going into junior high since I had some friends and knew I would find more."

"Before I came to junior high I felt excited to be coming to a larger school and making new friends. The first day scared me until I reached my first period class and saw my best friend. I was relieved to know we had every class together. After I got to know the school and the students better I felt better. I like junior high now and it makes me feel more grown-up."

There is considerable evidence in this study and other sources that

shows children's need for friendly, supportive relations with their peers. This should cause teachers and school administrators to examine any practices which deliberately force children into groups where all past friendship associations are broken. Rather it seems that organizational groupings should be sought which help children move from level to level in school with some past acquaintances for each child within each new group. Certainly the elementary and junior high schools could provide such grouping as children move from grade to grade.

The procedures that foster continuity for individuals and for groups of children as they move from level to level through school are those based on sound principles of learning and of curriculum development. They are procedures which help children to feel adequate to use their best potential for learning. The experiences selected for learning must be meaningful and interesting to pupils. They must be broad and varied enough to provide different learnings for different individuals.

Improving Human Relations Through Administrative Procedures

Any procedures which teachers and schools use to help children move successfully from one school level to another are of necessity applied within an organizational structure. Administrative leadership is largely responsible for the establishment and maintenance of open channels of communication so that teachers, counselors, administrators, parents and students may work together with greater understanding of children's needs and the purposes of education. The very obstacles which make problems for children as they move from level to level in school are frequently closely related to administrative organization and practices. Matters such as grouping within the school, scheduling, grading and promotion policies, reporting progress, and the use of special teachers require administrative decisions. Therefore it seems important to consider at this point some of the administrative procedures which have been suggested for working on the problem.

The material in this chapter stresses the importance of human relations in orienting children to new school levels. The data from students reported in Chapter 3 of Part One emphasize the importance of other people to pupils as they progress through school. In relation to moving to new school levels 61.4% of the situations mentioned involved one or more persons. (See Graph VIII, p. 38.) For young children the order of mention was parents, teachers, other children. With older students the order was reversed—other students, teachers (including counselors), and parents. (See Graph IX, p. 41.) Therefore, as appropriate administrative procedures are sought it should be remembered that there is considerable evidence that the problems of articula-

tion are largely human relations ones. This being true, successful orientation of students to new school levels will never be accomplished by administrative techniques alone. Solutions must be sought through procedures that improve the human relations of the persons who are involved.

It is the adults in a situation who are primarily responsible for identifying the causes of children's problems in articulation. They are also primarily responsible for planning, developing, and evaluating procedures that seem appropriate to solution of the problems.

If there are conflicts and confusions in the understandings, beliefs and educational purposes of teachers, counselors, administrators and other school personnel at the various levels, these will be revealed in the practices and procedures they employ. This points to a need for open channels of communication among school personnel at all levels. The following suggestions have been gathered from teachers. They cite procedures which would bring together those who work at various school levels or in different subject areas so they may improve their understandings of the curriculum and of the pupils. Such procedures give opportunities for sharing and discussing the purposes, expectancies and practices of various levels as individuals and groups of professional personnel express them. Teachers say:

"In-service training and orientation provide the vehicle by which the high calibre of a faculty is able to eliminate problems of continuity or articulation."

"Vertical committee meetings with teachers from all grade levels working together at in-service meetings help all to know what is being attempted."

"To smooth the gap between sixth and seventh grade we had a program of getting sixth and seventh grade teachers to know each other and what they were doing. This intervisitation and discussion was beneficial in that the teachers of Grade 6 were then better able to explain to their pupils changes that the next year would bring."

"It would help if the junior high teachers were made familiar with the senior high orientation course content for tenth graders."

It has long been recognized that teachers need much information about each child in order to help him to progress in school. Observations and conferences, when complemented by sensitivity and a sound knowledge of human development, are procedures that contribute to better understanding of children's needs and goals. Cumulative records can be particularly helpful when children make the move from elementary to junior high school and later to senior high school. The following statement made by a teacher suggests that the records sometimes can be used profitably by students as well as teachers.

"Records that follow pupils throughout the elementary school are transferred to the junior high school after they have completed their work in the elementary school. The records help the pupils as well as the teachers to recognize and understand the weaknesses and difficulties the pupils have, and an effort can be made to correct these."

Various kinds of orientation sessions and courses for pupils are being experimented with in many schools at all levels. These range from the very short preschool visit sometimes arranged for children before their entrance into kindergarten and first grade to the full semester orientation course provided by some senior high schools on entrance into tenth grade. The purposes are to provide an interacting situation in which children may explore and gain information about the expectancies and resources of the school, thus fostering a sense of security and adequacy.

Regardless of how carefully and conscientiously a procedure may be chosen and developed, the results should be evaluated in terms of what the gains are for children and teachers. Professional faculty meetings and vertical committees which bring together professional personnel from all levels may or may not produce better understandings and acceptance of compatible purposes. Conferences and records can fail to provide the most important information about a child. Two different tenth graders evaluated an orientation course very differently. The following quotations illustrate how a procedure that may seem to be a failure for one student may be helpful to another.

"As far as orientation in the high school I believe that it could be eliminated from the school curriculum. Orientation didn't help me enough in my knowledge of the school. The little amount of knowledge that I gathered from orientation could have been learned from the other kids in a short time. The only thing I learned from orientation was about the school government; this took about two weeks."

"Orientation helped me a lot in this school. It helped me find my way around the school and what kind of activities there were and all the most important things and persons that we're supposed to know."

Any procedures employed in attempting to identify the causes of children's difficulties in moving to new levels in school or to remove those difficulties should be continuously evaluated. The quality inherent in the procedures can be seen and felt in the human relations and learnings of the children involved.

Examples of Pupil Orientation

The following illustrations show the interrelated way in which the considerations stated in the preceding section may be interpreted in

specific settings. The administrative procedures in each illustration clearly evolved because they seemed appropriate for working toward solutions to the problems of students, parents, teachers and other school personnel.

From Home to School

Starting to school represents for most children the first major experience in moving out into the world of man's organized institutions. New people, new "rules" for behavior, strange expectancies, different controls on the timing of the child's day, new materials—all contribute to make "starting to school" one of the major events in the life of each child. His orientation to the new level of life experiences merits the thoughtful attention of teachers, school administrators, and parents.

The following story told by one kindergarten teacher describes how one school approached this phase of orientation. It can be noted that most of the procedures are as applicable to beginning first grade as to kindergarten.

PRELIMINARY CONTACTS

These are the beginning contacts for parents and child with the anticipated new experiences.

The parents and teachers in this school know as early as April or May the names of many of the children who will be entering kindergarten the following September. From the time this is known many of the parents understand that the teacher and school will welcome any informal contacts they make with the school. Sometimes children are brought to the playground just to play so they will begin to feel "This is my school," to feel at home there. Many children visit during a kindergarten day for a scheduled hour with other children. Some parents request the names of children who will be in the group and attempt to help the child become acquainted and make friends with the children who will be together. This is a particular problem of a school that has children coming from widely scattered areas rather than from a zoned area. Some parents contact the teacher to talk over problems and interests of their children. The teacher is sometimes invited into the home during the spring before the child enters kindergarten.

WELCOME LETTER TO PARENTS

During the preplanning at the opening of school a letter of welcome is sent to each child's parents.

Purposes of this letter are: (a) to establish relationship with parents, (b) to begin to develop a feeling of the interdependence of home and school, (c) to explain the values of kindergarten to a child, (d) to give a brief explanation of the purposes of the initial school program (open house, conferences, attendance of half of the children of the group on the first day), (e) to explain the importance of children's knowing that the parents

and the teacher are working together for them. Such a letter could be adapted for first grade parents to serve the same purposes.

Kindergarten
September 3, 1957

Dear _____:

We welcome you and your child to kindergarten. Recognizing that he is an important person, we are proud to assume the responsibility of working with you in providing for him a year of happy, meaningful experiences.

In the pamphlet, *Three to Six: Your Child Starts to School*, James Hymes says:

"This is his first moving out beyond his home. Your child will be doing this all the rest of his days, moving out to camp, to clubs, to high school, to college, to a job, to a family of his own. You want this first step to be a satisfying one, a solid base for all that must be built upon it.

"This is his first taste of formal learning. And learning has to go on all through life: from people, from books. . . . This should never stop, not even after the last diploma. And it won't, if this first taste is a pleasing one."⁵

The following schedule has been planned to assure your child a pleasing "first taste" of school.

On Thursday afternoon, September the sixth, between the hours of five and seven o'clock, you and your child will be invited to visit the kindergarten. This will provide an opportunity for him to become acquainted with the room, the equipment, and his teachers, and to share the occasion with you, the most important people in his life.

You will register for him on the sixth of September. At this time a conference with one or both parents will be scheduled for the following week. We have missed an interesting, important four years in his life. The more we learn about his growth and his interests, the better we can understand your child and plan to meet his individual needs.

Before the first day of school the postman will deliver a letter from us to your son or daughter. This letter will be our attempt to describe a regular school day. Fear of the unknown is a normal fear of most five-year-olds. We hope he will ask you to read the letter to him many times so that he can say with a feeling of security, "After we play, we clean up. After that we have a story When I finish resting you'll be waiting for me on the porch."

This first day is a more satisfying experience if taken in small doses. Those children whose last names begin with the letters A through L will attend on Monday from eight-thirty and remain at home on Tuesday. The others will come for their first day on Tuesday. This information is given to you now so that your child will not be disappointed and say, "But you said school started Monday."

⁵ James L. Hymes, Jr. *Three to Six: Your Child Starts to School*. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1950. 32 p.

Beginning with Wednesday, September the eleventh, all children will attend daily during the above hours.

With your cooperation as a partner in education, we're off to a flying start.

Sincerely yours,

INVITATION TO OPEN HOUSE

As explained in the letter to the parents, the children's first attendance at kindergarten is why they come for open house. The card of invitation to open house is sent to the child. This is the invitation:

Dear Joe,

Bring your Mother and Dad over tomorrow afternoon from 5 to 6 and let's get better acquainted. You will have time to meet your teachers, see your new friends, and play with the toys.

See you Thursday,

Love,
Miss S —
Miss B —

The child has his first experience at school with Mother and Dad along for security and to share his fun. Open house gives an opportunity for the teacher to gain important firsthand evidences of the security of the child and of the parent-child relationship; how the child relates to other children; interests of the child; evidence of children who are apt to become easily over-stimulated or disturbed. One child who came to open house walked in the door, beamed and said, "I thought it was going to be all desks!"

LETTER TO CHILD ABOUT FIRST DAY

Preceding the time when the children come for their first day in school a letter is sent to each child from his teacher.

The purposes of this letter are: (a) to further clarify "a kindergarten day" for parents, (b) to remove as far as possible the child's normal fear of the unknown by describing *in detail* what will happen from the minute he arrives at school until his parent comes for him, (c) to establish one more link in home-school communication. This is the letter:

Dear Joe,

When you come to kindergarten on Monday or Tuesday your job will be to put your rug and apron in the locker with your name on it. Each locker has a different picture to help you always remember which one is your own.

You have seen the many interesting toys that we have, so you may have decided already what you will do next.

Will you put on your new apron and paint with the bright paints at the easel or would you rather color with crayons? Maybe you are more interested in building a small house, putting the tiny furniture in it and finding the family to live there. Maybe you will build a corral for the

cowboy's horses or a garage for the farmer's new car. The big blocks and the climbing tower are fun too.

You may choose to take the baby doll or Bobby, her brother, for a ride in the grocery cart, wash dishes or set the table. The record player, sand box, new library books, and puzzles are there for you to use at any time.

After we have played for a long time we will put away the toys, sit together on the floor and hear a story about a little white kitten who had no home. Poor little kitten! Everywhere he went someone said, "Scat, scat. Go away, little cat!" Everyone, that is, except a little girl.

We will have juice and a cracker, play outdoors on the swings, slide, jungle gym, seesaw, climbing ladder and then come back inside and flop on our pretty new rugs for a short rest. Even that is fun at kindergarten because we are tired and because we will listen to the record player or hear another story as we rest together.

You will then put your rug back in your own locker, come sit on the floor and sing. Do you know "Davy Crockett"? How about "Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star"? We will learn a new song about a fat little puppy who liked to chase a cat.

Before you know it, the first day of kindergarten will be over. We will go out on the porch and find your car waiting for you.

Get your rug, apron and tissues ready! See you soon.

Love,

Miss S—

Miss B—

This letter indicates the kind of beginning school program offered for these children. It is informal though well planned and organized. The materials and experiences are selected in accordance with the interests of young children.

REGISTRATION

Parents come to register their children on the appointed day. At this time entrance information forms are given to parents to be filled out and returned on conference day. At registration also an individual conference is scheduled with each parent.

PARENT CONFERENCES

An attempt is made to schedule before school conferences with any parent who has indicated a problem or special concern. The first dates for conferences are also given to parents of children the teacher does not know well. Some children are well known because older brothers and sisters have been in school or because their parents have come to the school in the preceding spring.

This conference is one of the many procedures used by the teacher to understand the child as an individual. The conference should be informal. Few notes if any are taken as the parent or parents and the teacher talk. Part of the record forms is filled out by the teacher after the parents leave.

The teacher shows his genuine interest in each child and his respect for the parents.

THE FIRST DAYS

The first two days of kindergarten include half of the children of the group each day. This gives the teacher more opportunity to relate to children and to help children use materials. On the third day all of the children in the group come. If a parent fears that a child will not be willing to come to school alone the mother is urged to come and stay with the child. Seldom does a parent need to stay more than two days.

CONTINUED PARENT-SCHOOL COMMUNICATIONS

It is accepted that continuing communication between parents and the school is necessary for helping children move successfully through school. For young children the following suggestions summarize some ways of maintaining this two-way communication:

1. Frequent but brief notes are pinned to the child's clothing.

"John has been quite listless this morning. Thought you'd like to watch him this afternoon."

"Jane had an unhappy experience this morning. She fell off the trike, skinned her knee. The nurse fixed her up but her feelings have been on edge ever since."

"Please call me after five this afternoon. I'd like to tell you what a scientist you have."

2. Parents are invited to visit at any time, to request a conference, or to telephone if they have any questions. They are also urged to pin notes on the child's clothing such as:

"We are in the city for the day. Mrs. W. will come for Joe. If you need her during the day her number is —."

"Mary slept little last night following a bad dream at eleven. If she seems too cross or tired call me."

"Tom's brother has the flu. Tom has no evidence of a cold yet but please watch him."

3. The teacher schedules conferences with parents when these are needed.
4. Narrative form reports are sent to parents at the end of the year.

Through these and earlier contacts the teacher is making an attempt:

- (a) To help the parent feel comfortable rather than guilty or embarrassed. The parent is told that happiness is an important aspect of a child's first days at school.
- (b) To explain to the child that Mother is coming to help. (Two more hands can always be used on the first day.) The child is told also that it is *up to him* to say when his mother is to leave. This helps him to relax and enjoy today rather than worrying about what will happen tomorrow.
- (c) To help each child gain an important *best friend*, to build a strong relationship between the teacher and himself.

In schools where no kindergarten program exists, the first grade children and their parents need the same quality of support and help as described in the preceding illustration in order to provide a successful orientation to school.

Because teachers and parents frequently hold quite different expectancies for the kindergarten than they do for the first grade it is well to consider some of the problems of orientation to the first grade. Two teachers give the following clues to the problem:

"The first grade teacher expects all of the children who have had kindergarten experiences to be ready to read and not all are ready. She more or less insists that they are ready to read but have been hindered from reading."

"One first grade teacher expects a young first grade group to sit still for long periods, to listen, and to obey instructions. She spent three months settling discipline problems. Actually when she began to use some kindergarten techniques, especially at transition times, and gave more attention to the readiness of children before academic learnings were introduced, the group began to function as a unit instead of like individuals literally running all over."

Study of the research in human growth and development points to a need for the same quality of human support and the same program of interesting and varied experiences for first grade children as for those in kindergarten. Teachers who understand young children can recognize evidences of children's readiness for the complex experiences of learning to read. They know also how to work with individuals and groups of children in ways that honor the differences in children as they fulfill society's expectancies of learning to read.

Bridging the Gap from Elementary to Junior High School

As students anticipate the move from the elementary school to the junior high school they realize that their next school year will likely involve more new people, places and expectancies than has been true ever since they started to school six or seven years ago, unless, of course, they are among the thousands of children whose families moved from one community or town to another during their children's elementary school years.

The following account tells the kind of help given students in one situation to orient them to the next school level. It is an elementary-junior high school orientation but many of the procedures could be adapted to the move from junior to senior high school.

There are two classes of sixth graders in the local elementary school who go to junior high school each year. This elementary school has an enrollment of about 500 children. The junior high school to which they go brings

together between 800 and 900 boys and girls from six different elementary schools.

The principal of the elementary school invited the principal and the two counselors from the junior high school to talk over the problems that children might have as they move from elementary school to junior high school. The principal and counselors are invited each year to the June Breakfast which is an occasion when children and teachers of the elementary school are hosts to their friends and the parents. This gives the counselors and the junior high school principal an opportunity to see and hear the children as they speak, sing and dance to interpret the selected message for the June Breakfast. It helps the junior high school people understand some of the kinds of experiences these children have had in the elementary school.

In the spring preceding the time the children go to junior high the counselors come to the elementary school and sit down with the sixth grade teachers and the principal to talk about the boys and girls who will be coming to the junior high school in the fall. Cumulative records which have been growing through each child's experience from kindergarten on are a useful source of information to help the counselors become acquainted with individuals. Included in the cumulative records is a special write-up about each sixth grade student, prepared by his sixth grade teacher in consultation with the other teachers who know the student. This write-up gives the counselors important information about a student's strengths and weaknesses and background of experiences.

At another time during the spring the counselors are invited to speak to the PTA to tell the parents how the junior high plans for the new children and to answer questions which parents may have. Near the end of the school year the sixth graders are invited to visit at the junior high school. Here they meet the principal, some of the teachers, and some of the boys and girls whom they have known at their elementary school. At another time they are invited to an assembly program at the junior high school.

Junior high boys and girls who are the alumni of the elementary school are invited to come to the school to talk with the sixth graders. They talk about different phases of the junior high school programs and school living—about the changing classes, about the school activities such as Glee Club, band, and sports, about the range of choices in courses. This discussion time gives the elementary school boys and girls an opportunity to ask questions about anything which they may be looking forward to or which they may fear in the new experience they are anticipating.

All the parents of the boys and girls who are going to the junior high school are invited to meet with the sixth grade teachers and the principal of the elementary school and the counselors from the junior high school. These people tell them of the school activities, the choices in courses which their children may take, and answer other questions so that they, as well as the children, will know what to expect the next year. They are also

told about the PTA at the junior high school. Later in the spring the parents are invited to go to the junior high school for a visit, at which time the counselors are their hosts and help the parents to get acquainted with the school.

In making out the children's programs the counselors make use of the records and all information given them about individual children. They know which children most need warm, personal support in achieving their academic learnings, which children accomplish these learnings with great ease. They know which children have problems relating to other boys and girls and adults. As they plan programs for these boys and girls during the first year in junior high school, they attempt to place children with teachers in whose classes they will be most successful.

In summary, it may be well to state some beliefs on which this program of orientation is built:

1. Great importance is placed on the interpersonal relations between the adult personnel in the two schools—the principals, the counselors, the teachers.

2. These adults believe it is important that each child be looked upon as an individual and given courses and teachers and situations in which he has most promise of success.

3. An attempt is made to inform parents and children of changes which they may expect, to answer questions, and to allay fears of things which they "hear that" and which may cause uneasiness.

4. This quality of human relationship, understanding, and cooperative working can never be achieved solely through techniques and is not likely to result through administrative edict. Such relationships must be worked upon continuously, in good will and in good faith.

From the Elementary to the Junior High School

An abrupt change from an elementary self-contained classroom to a departmentalized junior high school may result in problems of several kinds for the children. One teacher states a few of these problems of organizing time, space and belongings as follows:

One of the difficulties is the added responsibility for personal belongings, getting places on time, etc., that comes when a child goes from sixth to seventh grade in the 6-3-3 setup. There is confusion because of the necessity for hurrying between classes with no time for conversations or drinks. All this happens at a time when everything else is new and confusing. Add to this the necessity for planning the entire morning before the first class starts so that books and supplies are at hand rather than in lockers.

The following comment by a student indicates a concern which may be the result of the abrupt change from one teacher to several:

One thing that makes difficulty for me is that the teachers are too busy

for the size of the class. Anytime you want to talk to the teachers, it's almost impossible. Everything appears to me to be on such an impersonal basis. The teachers also all grade differently. Sometimes it confuses me.

The core program with at least two or more periods with one teacher is an approach which has been used in many schools to make this change less abrupt. One purpose of such an organization is to provide a longer allotment of time with one teacher who can get to know better the strengths and weaknesses of each student.

The following describes the way one school system scheduled the seventh, eighth and ninth grades to provide for the transition from the self-contained classroom to the departmentalized program:

SEVENTH GRADE

One-half the day is spent with one teacher in a core program or in a combined program of language arts, social studies and mathematics.

The other half-day is a departmentalized schedule with three different teachers. This part of the program includes art, music, home economics, industrial arts, crafts, physical education, and science.

EIGHTH GRADE

Students are with one teacher for two periods for English and social studies, and the remainder of the day are in the departmentalized program.

NINTH GRADE

Students are in the departmentalized program, taking six subjects: five required (English, social studies, science, mathematics or algebra, and physical education) and one elective.

This plan provides opportunities for developing continuity for individuals and for the group in the gradual transition. Students see this program as an easy step-by-step progression from the elementary school to the type of scholastic schedule they will have in the senior high school, which seems to them a part of the process of becoming adults. The gradual assumption of responsibility for studying independently, for selecting courses, and for acquiring more advanced techniques of studying gives them a satisfying feeling of accomplishment.

From the Junior to the Senior High School

The following account gives the procedures used in one junior high school to orient its students to the senior high school which they will attend. The account is by a faculty member of the school.

Orientation to high school is a part of the planned curriculum. The 9A social studies course includes a unit on the senior high school—training possibilities, requirements for 10B's, and organization of the school. The

dean teaches this unit, counsels with the group and with each individual, and registers them for senior high school. Parents are contacted concerning this program through letters and bulletins and are encouraged to become acquainted with the dean.

One night meeting is held when the principal, dean of boys, and dean of girls from the high school come to the junior high school to meet the pupils and their parents. They participate in a roundtable discussion giving parents and pupils an opportunity to ask questions about the senior high school.

The 9A's have always been invited to the senior high school for a part of the day, usually in the afternoon when many of the upperclassmen will be gone. They meet with the student council for a discussion of the school activities and are given an opportunity to ask questions. Later they are taken on a tour of the building.

Orientation to New School Levels Is a System-Wide Responsibility

Sometimes when several people share a responsibility, there is some danger that each will wait for the others to "start the ball rolling." In the preceding illustrations, many people worked together in planning and carrying out the orientation procedures. Sometimes teachers took the initiative; sometimes a principal at one level or another made the first move; sometimes a counselor contacted other school personnel. Such variations from one situation to another are entirely appropriate and are to be encouraged. If anyone has a good idea, others should be willing to listen and to help expand and put it into practice. Nevertheless, leadership from someone at the central staff level is much to be desired when it is possible to have it.

A director of guidance who was sensitive to a problem of students and teachers throughout the school system describes in the following statement the ways used in this system to orient children to new school levels.

One would need to note our basic philosophy before any of the things that we do in the field of orientation or articulation would be meaningful to him. The procedures that are employed to solve any problem reveal the values of those in leadership roles—teachers, principals, supervisors, or guidance personnel.

We try to treat each child as an individual, planning our first contacts with him at registration so that he will feel wanted and understood. Confidence is fostered by personal contacts at registration. In most schools we have arranged for each teacher to register his own pupils, except for the latecomers who, for obvious reasons, must be registered in the office.

We feel that the best single instrument of orientation is our cumulative record which we are constantly studying for the purpose of improving our ability to write and interpret the contents. Cumulative records are a

source of information which contributes to understanding and helping children as individuals. Record keeping is not static. Teachers and guidance personnel strive to improve the recording of information about each child and the interpretation of data accumulated.

We recognize the step from kindergarten to first grade as a special one and plan for short sessions for pupils so that parents may be scheduled for individual conferences with the teacher. First entrance to school is an important step in orientation for successful continuity through school. This takes time and careful communication between teachers and parents.

When the pupil moves from the elementary school to the junior high school we assume that the counselors and the principals in the junior high schools will work with the director of guidance in the development of an orientation program. This usually involves visits from the counselors to each elementary classroom. The counselor usually takes along with him student council members who are "graduates" of the particular elementary school to help in answering the children's questions about the junior high school. We have found these pupils extremely valuable in the orientation process. Of course, they must be carefully prepared for it and must have a counselor or principal with them as they cannot be expected to see all the basic issues. The student councils in all of the secondary schools develop handbooks which are very valuable in these visits to the elementary schools. The teachers in the elementary schools assist in placing or grouping the children in the junior high schools by indicating to the counselors those who work well together. Thus, each child is assured of being in a class with some people he knows.

In the beginning of the school year the teachers and the student council in each junior high school use the handbook, assemblies and tours of the building to orient pupils to the setting.

When a child reaches eighth grade, the process of making his schedule for high school forms the core of the orientation. Counselors help him understand the test results in his cumulative folder and his teacher's judgment of his progress as a guide for his choice of subjects in high school. The junior high school counselors visit each room for the purpose of test interpretation. The senior high school counselors visit each room for the purpose of explaining the high school program and distributing the handbooks for use by the pupils and their parents.

Frequently the high school counselors visit parent meetings at the junior high school to discuss the high school program. The high school plans a PTA program for all parents of incoming ninth graders. The concerns and interests of parents in this new aspect of school for their children is recognized. Opportunities are provided for them to get information and share in the orientation.

The student council in the high school, which is sponsored by one of the guidance counselors, is one key to student orientation. Student groups, with the help of a counselor, accept leadership in student orientation to social and school citizenship roles for new students.

The teacher who is made to feel comfortable in a new situation is more likely to see the importance of the orientation process for children. One could hardly get a full understanding of our orientation process without reference to the efforts we make in the orientation of teachers. The local education association assigns each new teacher a big brother or sister who makes contacts during the summer and tries to help with housing and other problems. The program committee plans an informal party for all new teachers. During the year the welfare committee furnishes refreshments for three or four sessions planned for new teachers by the guidance department, the purpose of which is to encourage them to raise questions they might have because they are new and to help them understand guidance procedures such as testing and record keeping.

We consider a workshop organization (monthly sessions on a grade level basis) one of our most valuable instruments in articulation. Not only does this organization give opportunity for getting acquainted with the curriculum but it also serves to develop valuable personal contacts and understanding. Each principal accepts the responsibility of orienting new teachers and substitute teachers who will work in his building. The handbooks developed for teachers and substitutes are useful in this process. Workshop groupings that cut across grade level lines might well be examined as a practice that will help articulation.

Chapter Summary

Both pupils and teachers express concern about the problems which arise when children first enter the schools as beginners and when they must change from one administrative level of the school system to the next. Attempts to help children make satisfactory adjustments and subsequent progress at these points will work out best if they are based upon sound basic ideas. Some of these have been suggested in Part Two of this yearbook. This chapter considers also three basic purposes to be served by any orientation program for pupils. These are: (a) maintaining a security balance from the old and familiar to the new and strange; (b) developing continuity for the child as an individual and continuity for the whole group of children; and (c) improving human relations in the school through appropriate administrative procedures. Each of these purposes is discussed and illustrated as to its meaning in practice.

Finally, detailed examples are provided to indicate possible approaches that creative teachers and schools have used as they have tried to help students understand and function successfully at a new school level. These illustrations are by no means exhaustive, but they do suggest some ways of applying what is known about human development, learning, curriculum and educational objectives.

Following is a summary of some of the procedures discussed in this chapter:

With emphasis on adult relations:

- Orientation session with parents
- Individual parent conferences
- Informal contacts of teachers with parents, for example, school visits, notes, phone calls
- Discussion of next school level at PTA by counselor or principal or teachers
- Letters to parents of beginning school child explaining plans for beginning days of school
- Conferences between principals of schools of two levels
- Visit in lower school by principal, counselors (and perhaps teachers) from new school
- Assistance to counselors (by teachers at lower level) in placement or grouping for next level
- In-service meetings which provide opportunities for teachers at different levels in the school to share what they believe and are doing with students
- Faculty meetings to work on problems of continuity
- Spring round-up (with Health Department)
- Administrative preparation for the "unexpected" in enrollment, for example, new sections, placement.

With emphasis on student-student and student-adult relations:

- Open house for beginning school child and his parents
- Letter to beginning school child, welcoming and describing what he can expect to do first day at school
- Pupil-parent-teacher conferences
- Service of student council in leadership role in orientation of new students
- Return of "alumni" of school to elementary or junior high school to help students of one level learn about next level
- Discussion by teacher with children of what will be expected of them at the new level
- Student orientation tours of building, grounds, and special services of the school
- Conference of counselors from next level with teachers and children at present level
- Interpretation of test scores by junior high school counselor to help students understand evidences of aptitudes, strengths and weaknesses as basis for planning schedules at next level
- Help from eighth and ninth grade counselors on schedule making for senior high school programs.

With emphasis on written materials:

Kindergarten or first grade brochures

Handbooks for students describing junior or senior high school environment and procedures

Cumulative records.

The specific procedures which any school employs in helping its pupils become oriented to new school levels will need to be developed in relation to the problems and resources in the particular situation. Numbers of children, distances to be traveled to school, mobility of the population, socioeconomic conditions of the community, and expectancies of parents, children and teaching personnel are among the many factors which must be dealt with as approaches to the problem are determined. Before any procedure can be judged appropriate for a particular group of people in a particular situation, it should be examined in relation to problems of continuity as viewed by the children, their parents and teachers. It should be a procedure selected and developed through the use of the best resources—people, materials, techniques for communication—available in the situation. Furthermore, the success of any procedure will depend in large measure upon the understandings and beliefs of the individuals who actually put the planned procedure into practice.

Promoting Steady Progress Between Grades and Within Grades

WHEN A CHILD or adolescent moves from one school situation to another, he notices differences between the old setting and the new. If the differences represent improvements from the new to the old—more attractive surroundings, more friends, a more interesting curriculum—he may welcome the changes and adjust happily and quickly to the new situation. If the new situation suffers in comparison with the old—less attractive surroundings, few or no friends, a less interesting curriculum—he is apt to have difficulty in adjusting either quickly or well to the new school situation.

Helping school children make steady progress from year to year and during each school year is certainly of great importance. Even though children's reports did not mention that fact specifically, it is implied in hundreds of comments about teacher behavior, success and lack of success with subject matter, relations with other pupils, and several other topics. The present chapter discusses ways and means of helping boys and girls make steady progress from day to day and year to year. The two preceding chapters have concentrated on adjustments pupils need to make in moving to a new school community or to a new school level. All that has been said in those chapters about helping children adjust to teachers and other pupils also applies in the day-to-day and year-to-year changes faced by children. This chapter will emphasize improved articulation of children's learning experiences by suggesting: (a) plans for grouping children, (b) planning for curriculum and instruction, and (c) promotion policies and practices.

The research study in Part One reflects various existing practices in grouping, instruction and promotion. At times these practices were described as ways of fostering articulation; at other times they were cited as a real detriment to achieving desirable continuity in learning. Examination of "teacher behavior" and "subject matter" situations indi-

cates that the teacher's role in directing learning experiences and the way the subject matter is planned and organized make a big difference in pupils' attitudes toward the total school situation. If this is true, what does it mean for teachers as they plan, select and organize learning experiences? Pupils also indicated that uncertainty of promotion caused them worry and anxiety, and retention brought feelings of lack of success and of incompetence. Could revisions in promotion policies prevent these negative feelings?

The bases for improving articulation presented in Part Two have important implications for formulating and implementing grouping, instruction and promotion policies. For example, readiness is an important consideration in all three of these areas. If continuity in learning is an individual, personal matter, each child needs to have an opportunity to see new relationships for himself. What he sees is dependent upon several factors, among which is his readiness for learning. Children's variations in growth patterns, their unique experiential backgrounds, and their feelings of security are all integral parts of readiness. It would seem important that variations in each of these kinds of readiness be considered as children are grouped for learning. Educators cannot afford to overestimate or underestimate any one of these factors. Forming groups on the basis of equality in one trait results in groups divergent in other traits. Grouping of children for learning experiences must, therefore, be flexible if allowance is to be made for individual variations. Perhaps some of the variations should have priority over others when children are grouped. We need to decide whether it is better to group together children who are similar in their mental ability but different in chronological age and social maturity, or to group together children who are similar in chronological age and social maturity but differing in mental ability.

The discussion of child development, learning, objectives and curriculum in Part Two suggests that variations in readiness of all kinds must be given attention in the selection, organization and evaluation of learning experiences. These experiences should be paced to the individual differences in readiness within and among the learners. It is unrealistic to hope for the simultaneous attainment of rigid "minimum essentials" by all children in a given class. A fixed curriculum may retard one child because he lacks sufficiently high standards of achievement while it may cause another child to be under undue pressure because he lacks the readiness to succeed. Children sometimes understand this better than do their teachers. One high school student put it this way:

About one of the most difficult periods or times in my school years was in the second grade. I had quite a time learning how to read and spell.

The teacher was always pushing us too fast to learn very much and have it stick with us. Anyway that was the way with me. I know that a lot of people mature a lot faster in school and they get more out of it before the rest of the class does.

The potentialities for any kind of continuity in learning seem rather doubtful in a curriculum that has been preplanned by adults to be mastered by children block by block. This would not mean, however, that the teachers and the school environment are not important in helping children see and set their goals. It would seem that large problems rather than segments of subject matter would offer learners greater opportunities for individual and group participation of a variety of kinds on a variety of developmental levels. Solving problems of real concern to them requires children to see relatedness among various subjects. For example, in a gardening project children would have to know how to measure to plant seeds at the correct distance apart and at the appropriate depth. They would need arithmetic to solve their science problems. Skills would have real significance for children as they use them in the solution of their problems. Children who want to write a letter to an airline to ask for free materials soon realize the importance of knowing how to spell and write and of knowing an appropriate form for a business letter. At the same time that problem solving activities are fostering children's intellectual growth, children's personal and social growth can also be fostered. Children can be learning how to get along with their peers as they work together; they can be overcoming shyness while giving an oral report.

When educators are faced with the task of deciding who shall or shall not be promoted, readiness also becomes an important consideration. Although comparisons with other children will be made by parents, teachers and children, comparison of each child's previous record of his developmental pattern with his present status should be more useful than comparisons with the developmental patterns of other children. When promotion is based on the adequacy of each child's growth, promotion then becomes a problem of regrouping for further learning rather than a question of a child's success or failure based on the acquisition of specific materials.

The extent to which school organizational and instructional policies and practices are based on the generalizations presented in Part Two actually does make a difference in promoting pupil progress from year to year. Some policies and practices have greater possibilities for helping relatedness than do others. The remainder of this chapter will examine currently existing policies and practices that are used in attempting to break down interruptions or barriers to progress. It in-

cludes a discussion of (a) grouping practices, (b) methods of curriculum planning, and (c) promotion policies carried on within the framework of the graded plan as well as policies and practices as they operate within ungraded plans such as the "Primary School," the "Intermediate School," intergrade groupings, and continuous progress plans.

Changes in Policies and Practices in a Graded System

Various attempts to facilitate changes in instruction through changes in school organization have appeared and disappeared through the years. As a background for current changes in the "graded system" it seems appropriate to examine its original purposes. The graded system originated as an attempt to achieve homogeneity in classrooms. The administrative machinery of this system became well established by the post-Civil War period. Courses of study were planned on the basis of grades. Textbooks were published in "graded" series. At the end of each year, passing of examinations determined whether the gate into the next grade swung open or remained closed.

Practices in Grouping Children

Eventually educators began to recognize that the "graded system" had achieved neither "homogeneity" in the classrooms nor well-articulated learning for children. Teaching efforts which were directed toward achievement of uniformity of standards suppressed individual differences. Slower learners were retained; accelerated learners were not advanced rapidly enough.

Special "plans" for breaking the lock step: Dissatisfaction with the lock-step promotion and grading policy of the "graded system" brought forth such plans as the "Pueblo Plan" and the "Cambridge Plan" which introduced greater flexibility into the scheme of promotion so that children could progress through the course of study at their individual speeds. Other plans that were devised to expedite the progress of the individual pupil were the "Winnetka Plan" and the "Dalton Plan." The publicity accorded these specialized plans served to call attention to the need for breaking the lock step systems, but interest in them dwindled as their framers found that no one of them represented a perfect panacea for the ills they were supposed to correct.

The self-contained classroom: The self-contained classroom unit plan of school organization is one logical outgrowth of the "graded system." Within the framework of the graded system many schools today are handling problems of grouping, instruction and promotion in ways quite different from the earlier conception of homogeneous grouping, graded subject matter achievements, and lock step promotions. For

example, in many urban or rural, public or private elementary schools and some junior and senior high schools, visitors will find pupils of similar social maturity grouped together under the extended guidance of a single teacher all day or for large blocks of time during a day. What is known about aspects of the maturity of these children has been considered before they were grouped together in this elementary grade or high school class. At the early elementary level these groups of children may remain together through several grades. They may or may not have the same teacher for these several grades. Whether it is advantageous or disadvantageous to have a group of children assigned to the same teacher for two or three years depends to a great degree on the teacher's personality and his ability to develop appropriate learning experiences with and for children.

This arrangement of grouping has several advantages in terms of fostering better continuity in learning. It offers the teacher opportunities for knowing each child well and really becoming aware of his variations in readiness. Knowing these children well, he is better able to plan learning experiences with and for his group that will promote steady progress toward educational objectives. Having this group of children all day or for long blocks of time, he is freed to use large problems rather than slices of graded material as centers of attention. Within this larger group it is possible and usually necessary to form smaller groups which will be shifted according to their variations in readiness and their similarities in goals.

Developmental reading groups: Another attempt to break down barriers between grades is the grouping of children of several grades for developmental reading. In one large city system the children of the sixth, seventh and eighth grades all have developmental reading at the same time of day. At this time they shift classes and work together in groups according to their common reading problems. Similarly the children of the primary grades of a midwestern laboratory school are grouped for developmental reading regardless of grade level. During the reading period Miss Smith may have children from several grades in her reading group.

Intergrade learning activities: Other schools have established the practice of encouraging interaction and interchange on a total school basis. The assumption underlying this practice is that children will progress through the grades more smoothly and comfortably if they have opportunities to work on common problems with children from grades above and below them. Here are a few examples of the ways older and younger children plan and work together:

1. A first grade chart appears on the hall bulletin board:

Clarisse is bringing a mother rabbit.

We need a rabbit pen.

Which fifth grade boys will help us make a pen?

Sign here:

2. A chart is taken by a second grade boy and girl to a sixth grade class:

Today when we came in from recess Jack found drops of water on the lid of the terrarium. Will a committee from this room come to our room and explain where the water came from?

Mrs. Williams' Second Grade

3. An announcement over the loudspeaker at 9 a.m.:

Mr. Brown's sixth grade is ready to share the information gathered on the Safety Survey. They will explain the charts which are in the hall and demonstrate pedestrian safety measures. You may hear the report at recess, at noon or arrange another time with Mr. Brown.

4. On a second grade daily news bulletin:

Surprise today!

The fourth grade will share their play with us at 2:15.

Intergrade school clubs: In many other schools this breakdown of grade lines has been met in another way. Children have contacts with children of other age levels through club activities such as dramatics, French, folk dancing, art, puppetry and choir. Children, regardless of grade, join the group of their choice. This kind of interaction and interchange with children of other age levels should be beneficial for establishing good rapport between children throughout a total school. The particular value of this kind of interchange for aiding articulation in learning would seem to rest on its potentialities for children to work together on common problems that offer individual and group participation of a variety of kinds on various developmental levels.

From these examples of grouping it can be seen that within the framework of the "graded system" attempts are being made to break down grade barriers by methods of grouping within a class, among classes, and in a total school. In most cases, some kind of similarity of readiness or goals is used as the basis for determining how children are grouped and how long the group remains together.

Curriculum Planning

Closely allied to grouping as a means of facilitating progress are changes in the way learning experiences are planned, selected, organized and evaluated with and for children.

Curriculum planning across grade lines: In an attempt to assure children continuity and breadth of experience total staffs may work

out the broad flexible plan of curriculum organization within which they agree to function. Many teachers claim that through continuous study and discussion of these plans their schools are overcoming problems of articulation between grades. Children's learning experiences are influenced not only by what has already happened the previous year but also by what might be anticipated for the next year. A large county school system may provide time for teachers to make careful over-all plans for children's experiences in reading, arithmetic, science and social studies.

Problem solving that cuts across grade lines and subject areas is not confined to the elementary level; it also goes on at the junior high school and senior high school levels. To carry on problem solving of this kind, however, it is necessary that children and teachers have long blocks of time for work and study. Provision is made for long time blocks in many elementary schools and in some junior and senior high schools.

A tenth grade girl recalled her fourth grade experiences in working with other children on a study of pioneer life. She evaluated her experience as "exciting in a sense that it was something different. We learned a lot from the things we did."

Curriculum planning with a given group: Attempts to break down grade barriers are also being made at the level of planning specific learning experiences with and for a given group of children. Teachers who recognize differences in readiness and the importance of children's seeing and setting their own goals are guiding them in planning experiences that are meaningful and significant to them. The forms these experiences take are almost limitless. Usually they are organized around large ideas or problems in contrast to minute bits of information. The problems are comprehensive enough so that all the members of the group have an opportunity to participate in a variety of ways on a variety of levels. Some children may perform experiments, others may draw charts, still others may give reports of information they have gleaned from material written on a reading level they can understand. What children in Grade 6 learn about the ways animals protect themselves is not confined to the covers of a sixth grade science book. Nor is it confined to specific science concepts. Rather it includes skills in language arts, critical thinking, the use of resources, and human relations that cannot be neatly compartmentalized by grade levels. Children are given direct instruction in techniques and methods of work when these techniques and methods are needed.

Both over-all planning and specific planning are important considerations for schools that are trying to break down grade-to-grade

barriers through the medium of the curriculum. Total school planning offers greater possibility for a unified curriculum from grade to grade. Within the framework of this larger plan it would seem important that children select the specific problems that challenge them if they are to perceive relationships and if they are to have any kind of articulation in their learning experiences from grade to grade.

Promotion Policies and Practices

Methods of promotion are another point of attack being used within the framework of the "graded system" in attempts to smooth out the transition from grade to grade. Many schools are beginning to recognize that the question that faces them each June is not, "Shall John pass or fail?" but rather, "In which group shall I place John so that he can learn most effectively?" Schools that recognize that neither promotion nor failure will change a child's rate of learning are attempting to use methods of promoting that are more compatible with continuous pupil growth.

Decisions concerning each child's progress and placement at the end of each school year are made on the basis of a number of considerations. One of these considerations is the comparison of a child's previous record of his developmental pattern with his present status. Another consideration is the grade placement which will be most likely to help foster his further learning. Decisions of this kind go on in schools that are working at the problem of breaking down grade barriers through methods of grouping and curriculum planning. For example, in a school where children are grouped for developmental reading regardless of grade it is possible to let John move along with his group and read with other children from other grades who share his reading difficulty. In places where children have a chance to learn through a variety of media rather than one textbook John is likely to be provided with opportunities for further learning regardless of the grade level labeled on his classroom door. It would seem important and necessary that the problem of breaking down grade barriers be attacked through grouping, curriculum planning, and promotion practices. To be effective means of fostering articulation these efforts cannot be carried on in isolation.

Basis for Judging Suggested Practices

The foregoing suggestions are by no means a comprehensive coverage of possible choices of practices for improving articulation from year to year of a child's school experience as he goes through a graded school system. Neither are the various suggestions of equal merit (in general

or for a specific school or school system). The suggested procedures are simply a sampling of practices that have been tried in various places and which need to be evaluated as to their appropriateness for any other particular situation.

Readers may react to these procedures in any one of the following ways: "That sounds as if it might work (or not work) in our school." "That would represent too radical a change from our present organization." "Some of our teachers would be willing to try this, but others would not." "That procedure does not agree with the general educational philosophy we hold." "We could adapt that procedure to fit our situation." "This procedure seems to have some merit. We ought to try it out experimentally on a small scale and see how it works. Then if it helps to break down grade-to-grade barriers, we could put it into general practice."

Attempts To Remove Barriers by Eliminating Grade Lines

The previous section has described efforts to break down barriers within the framework of the graded system. Another approach to the problem of grade barriers is the elimination of grade lines by establishing ungraded plans such as the "Primary School," the "Intermediate School," interage groupings, and continuous progress plans. These ungraded plans are a result of discontent with the "graded system" as a means of relating the principles developed in Part Two to school practice. Goodlad points out three major twentieth century movements which have contributed to development of ungraded plans: (a) the observation and experimentation of the Child Study Movement which revealed wide differences of growth and learning within and among children; (b) studies of the effects of nonpromotion which pointed to the negative effects of failure and the problems of the slow and rapid learners; (c) studies in the field of curriculum which indicated the need of relating instruction to what is known about children, content and the learning process.¹

It is obvious that the framework of the original "graded system" described earlier would make it difficult for teachers to take into account the findings of these studies. There is a growing belief that the solution to this problem means adjusting the framework of the school to fit the needs of children. To alleviate the discrepancy between the findings of the Child Study Movement, studies of the effects of nonpromotion, and studies in the field of curriculum and school practice, some educators have tried to break down grade lines by replacing several grades

¹ John I. Goodlad. "Ungrading the Elementary Grades." *NEA Journal* 44: 170; March 1955.

by divisions. "In 1948, 17 percent of 1598 city school systems included in a survey reported one or more schools in each system in which pupils were classified by divisions rather than grades."²

What Is an "Ungraded Plan"?

At the outset, it seems appropriate to state what an "ungraded plan" is *not*, and some of the things which it does not pretend to do. First, it is *not* a method of teaching. Second, it does *not* include procedures of instruction that are a departure from those long used by good teachers. Third, it does *not* solve the problems of teachers who have limited conceptions of child growth and learning and who are determined to teach each child the same material in the same way. It is an administrative tool whereby a child is not asked to repeat a grade, but is given an opportunity to use more time to learn the skills and knowledge which he needs without the stigma of "failing a grade." It is an organizational arrangement within an elementary school to permit more flexible groupings and to provide longer blocks of time. It may embrace the first three traditional grades, the last three traditional grades, or all six grades of a six-year program. During any or all of these three periods of time, children are grouped without any designation of grade other than "Primary School," "Intermediate School," or perhaps "Miss Brown's Group."

At the end of three years beyond kindergarten in the Primary School, most children move on to the fourth grade or the Intermediate School. Other children stretch out their programs another semester or year. Some children whose patterns of growth are faster complete the program in a shorter length of time. Likewise, the Intermediate School may embrace the span of three or four years beyond the Primary School, depending upon the individual child. Thus, several grades are replaced by a single unit of three or four years. Within this longer period of time, without the pressure of artificial preconceived grade level expectations, some think that it is possible to eliminate many unnecessary gaps and overlaps that fail to recognize each child's lags and spurts in his individual pattern of development. Thereby, opportunities are afforded for each child, in the company of children similar in chronological age, to move along as smoothly and as rapidly as possible in all areas of development and learning. Usually each pupil's progress is recorded by levels of academic achievement. Other aspects of growth are also used to measure readiness and progress.

Systems where pupils are classified by divisions rather than by grades are scattered throughout the United States. Surveys reveal that

² Henry J. Otto. "The Organization of the Educational Program." *Review of Educational Research* 23: 185; April 1953. p. 185.

there are various forms of ungraded plans located in widely scattered places where school systems are trying to solve their organization problems by the elimination of grade lines.³ A complete list of places which have used ungraded plans would indicate that dissatisfaction with the barriers of grade lines has reached the East, the West, the Middle West, the North, and the South.

A Look at Ungraded Plans in Operation

Perhaps a brief explanation of the operation of several ungraded plans will give a better picture of their potentialities for developing continuity in the educative process.

The Primary School in one large city system: In one large city system the Primary School organization has been in operation since 1942, when the plan was initiated in one school.⁴ Gradually all of the schools in the city have established the ungraded plan in their primary grades. The Primary School covers the span of a unit of six, seven or eight semesters above the kindergarten. As each child leaves kindergarten, he becomes a P1, first semester above kindergarten. At the end of the first semester, he becomes a P2. In the third semester, he is labeled P3, and so on, through P6, P7 or P8, depending on his need to stretch out his primary program.

Careful records are kept of his academic progress and his personal and social development. His progress card, which he takes home, gives information about his growth and learning. It indicates whether he is making progress or needs improvement in personal and social growth as well as in growth in learning and skills. The following items of personal and social growth are evaluated:

Healthful Living

Practices good health habits

Observes safety rules

³ See: John I. Goodlad. "Ungrading the Elementary Grades." *NEA Journal* 44: 170-71; March 1955.

John I. Goodlad. "More About the Ungraded Plan." *NEA Journal* 44: 295-96; May 1955.

Robert H. Anderson. "The Ungraded Primary School as a Contribution to Improved School Practices." *Frontiers of Elementary Education II*. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1955.

Louise E. Kant. *The Ungraded Primary School in Wisconsin*. Master's thesis. Madison: University of Wisconsin 1955. (Unpublished)

⁴ For discussions of the Milwaukee Primary School, see:

Florence C. Kelly. "The Primary School in Milwaukee." *Childhood Education* 24: 238; January 1948.

Florence C. Kelly. "Ungraded Primary Schools Make the Grade in Milwaukee." *NEA Journal* 40: 645-46; December 1951.

Emil F. Faith. "Continuous Progress at the Primary Level." *The Phi Delta Kappan* 30: 356-59; May 1949.

Personal Development

- Plays well with others
- Respects rights of others
- Observes rules and regulations
- Shows growth in self-control
- Accepts responsibility

Work Habits and Attitudes

- Follows directions
- Completes work begun
- Works well independently
- Works well with others.

Behavioral evidence of growth or absence of growth in the areas of reading, language, and arithmetic is indicated. Areas in which a child shows special interest such as arts and crafts, music, science, social studies, stories, poetry, and physical activities are noted. On the back of the card is a record of the dates a child advanced from each reading level to another. In each child's cumulative folder is a complete reading record of every book he has read and the semester in which he read it. The individual reading record sheet lists 12 reading levels: (1) Pre-reading or readiness, (2) Experience chart reading, (3) Preprimers, (4) Easy Primers, (5) Hard Primers, (6) Easy First Readers, (7) Hard First Readers, (8) Easy Second Readers, (9) Hard Second Readers, (10) Easy Third Readers, (11) Hard Third Readers, and (12) Independent Reading. The approximate date on which a child advances from one reading level to another is noted.

These individual records, together with other records of academic, social, and physical growth, give a picture of what each child's growth is and enables his teacher to select challenging new experiences for him and his classmates.

At the close of each semester the primary teachers and the principal have a planning conference to study the problem of regrouping. With records of academic progress and social development before them, they try to make desirable changes. If it is possible, a group stays with the same teacher for a year. Groups are organized so that no child is more than one year younger or older than the other children in his room. Through careful regrouping, there is a gradual shifting of slow learners and accelerated learners so that the length of their programs is stretched out or shortened and enriched to meet their particular patterns of growth and learning.

Parents become partners in the Primary School Plan by becoming acquainted with its philosophy and operation before their children begin the Primary School. Throughout the child's stay in the Primary

School, frequent parent-teacher conferences are arranged so that parents will have an understanding of their child's placement and progress. They are prepared for the possibility of their child's staying in the Primary School three, three and one-half, or four years.

A Continuous Progress Plan in a smaller city: Another city⁵ initiated a continuous progress plan in a pilot school in 1951 and is now using it in all the elementary schools of the city. The plan includes kindergarten, primary, and intermediate grades. Children may remain in kindergarten either two or three years, depending on their rate of progress. Four years is the maximum number of years spent in the primary school. At the end of three or four years, as the case may be, a child is advanced to the intermediate cycle.

Grouping of children is based on chronological age and intellectual, social, and emotional maturity. At any time that it seems feasible a child may be shifted to a group where he would be happier and make better progress.

There are no specific progress levels in this plan. The following evaluation techniques are used: group mental tests, Binet tests for cases in question, reading tests, personality tests, health records, anecdotal records indicating success with developmental tasks, teacher-pupil records of daily performance, and parent records. There are two scheduled parent-teacher conferences per year to discuss each child's progress. Progress reports are also sent home once each year between January 15 and February 15. When a child leaves the kindergarten or the primary school, parents receive a statement concerning his placement in primary school or intermediate school.

Parents are kept informed about the plan. They are given booklets and bulletins about its philosophy and operation. Reports at PTA meetings and individual conferences are also aids in communicating with parents.

Other plans: In the Continuous Progress Plan in a single school in another city,⁶ a group of children live with one teacher for a three year period. After one year in kindergarten the children move as a group to the primary school where they stay with one teacher for three years. At the end of three years they move to another three year unit in another room with another teacher.

John J. Brooks reports an experiment with interage groups at the

⁵ For further discussion of this plan, see: Louise E. Kant, "The Ungraded Primary School in Wisconsin." *op. cit.*, Chapter VI.

⁶ Edith Roach Snyder, Ann Galbraith, and Elsie Welch, "We Take a Three-Year Lease." *Continuous Learning*. Bulletin No. 47. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1951. p. 30-35.

intermediate level.⁷ In this experiment grade designations are used only for admission, transfer and graduation purposes. Children are placed with groups that seem to offer greatest opportunity for them regardless of age or "grade." According to Brooks, the interage group picks up a child where he is and carries him on in a developmental experience in line with his own abilities and interests.

Does the "Ungraded Plan" Solve Problems?

Do these attempts to break down grade lines fully solve problems of continuity? The answer to this question is obviously, "No." Continuity in learning cannot be achieved by mechanically applying an administrative device. However, schools where grade-to-grade barriers are removed do offer teachers opportunities to implement a continuous instructional program through which children can progress as normally and as rapidly as possible. The ungraded plan does have the potentialities for flexible grouping of children with provision for individual variations or differences. A longer span of years may provide greater opportunity for pacing learning to the readiness of the learners. If individual records of all areas of progress are used to guide children in their learning, each child can have experiences for which he is ready, and gaps and overlaps in his learning can be avoided as much as possible. The slow learner and the child whose school attendance has been interrupted by illness, moving or vacations are not asked to "repeat." Instead it is possible to offer them experiences which build on their previous experiences. The rapid learner is not "skipped" or forced to move along without available experiences for which he is ready. The removal of stratified subject matter organized around graded materials to be hurdled grade by grade frees teachers to use centers of attention such as problems and ideas which have valid extensions in understandings and in educational use.

Schools where grade-to-grade barriers are removed do offer teachers opportunities for knowing each child well, living with him over a period of time, and helping him work on problems that are of importance to him. When these opportunities are used, chances are greater for helping each child to perceive continuities and to relate his learnings for himself. However, an organizational plan can only make the job of relatedness, flexibility and creativity in instruction easier. Whether it does or not is another question. Let there be no mistake. There is no magic in changing the label on Miss Smith's door from "First Grade" to "Primary School" or the one on Miss Brown's door from "Fourth

⁷ John J. Brooks. "Interage Grouping on Trial." *Continuous Learning*. Bulletin No. 47. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1951. p. 27-29.

Grade" to "Intermediate School." To make any difference in solving problems of program continuity and individual differences both Miss Smith and Miss Brown must not only possess an understanding of educational objectives and of the implications of child development, learning and curriculum theory for the way they select, organize, plan and evaluate learning experiences with and for boys and girls, but they must also translate this understanding into action. Coupled with this insight, they must also have an understanding of the ungraded plan and its potentialities as an organizational means for living and learning. Then, if they are creative teachers, they can and will capitalize on the opportunities the plan affords. Simply eliminating grade lines is not enough.

Chapter Summary

The more dramatic transition points in a child's school life, such as moving to the next higher school level or moving to a new school community, are apt to be the "big events" for him. At such points in a child's educational career he has many adjustments to make—to new friends, new teachers, different types of buildings, different schedules, different programs of studies, and dozens of other "new and different" factors. The relatively undramatic transitions of day-to-day and term-to-term and year-to-year experience are, nevertheless, very important too. In particular cases, one of these apparently lesser points of articulation may be of greater significance to a child than the more obvious changes between schools or school levels (elementary, junior high school, senior high school). The present chapter stresses the significance of the individual child's readiness for the more frequent, relatively shorter steps in his educational progress.

The role of the teacher and the importance of success or lack of success with subject matter are highlighted as of front-rank importance in boys' and girls' everyday progress in school. Reference is made to the basic considerations developed in Part Two of this yearbook, pointing out the dependence of that progress upon fundamental concepts in child development, learning, and curriculum, and upon educational objectives held by children for themselves and by teachers for children.

Practices which are described in more or less detail are not necessarily recommendations of the yearbook committee. They are rather presented as procedures which are being tried in various schools to break down grade-to-grade barriers and to minimize the too much emphasized concept of sharp divisions between successive grades in school.

Consideration is given to some methods in current use for dealing with problems of grouping children, curriculum planning, and promotion policies—all within the framework of the typical graded school or school system. These methods represent changes which have been made in organizational and instructional policies within graded schools.

Finally, in recognition of dissatisfaction existing in many school systems with the somewhat artificial grade-line barriers of the graded system, some so-called "ungraded" plans of school organization are described in more or less detail. Whether these plans are the answers to helping children perceive relatedness is difficult to determine and may be different from one school system to another. The descriptions of these plans are provided in order that the reader may judge for himself how well they fit the basic considerations set forth in Part Two and how much they contribute toward a solution of the articulation problems faced by children as they move along through each grade and from grade to grade.

Approaching Continuity Through Understanding the Learner

WE GROW IN understanding as our human antennae (eyes, ears and other sense organs) become more sensitive to the human laboratory that surrounds us in our schools. What a child or youth says, writes, draws, reads or sings; how he feels about his family and his peer group; his concern for size, appearance and physical prowess—all these factors determine his recurring patterns of behavior. His recurring patterns of behavior give us in turn a picture of the private world of each learner that is a prerequisite to our understanding of him. Thus, the following statement by a seventh grade boy, recently transferred to a large junior high school, takes on significance:

"I am on the small side . . . behind a year . . . barely passing and nobody seems to notice much."

Our clues can also be positive as indicated by this excerpt from a teacher's conversation with Jane after a high school social studies class:

Jane: "School is so wonderful that I hate for summer vacation to come and this is the first time I have ever felt this way about school."

Teacher: "What makes school so much better this year, Jane?"

Jane: "Guess it is because of several things, like the fun with others . . . and I catch on in my subjects better, even geometry. You won't think I am kidding, will you, if I say you are nice and I feel free to talk with you, but you already know that."

If we are to see through the eyes of school children and youth, that is, develop understandings, we need information. The excerpts above are bits of evidence that give us a glimpse into the world of children and youth as learners in the school environment.

Some research seems to indicate that teachers and supervisory personnel are apt to be oriented either toward the learner or toward a program of school studies. If boys and girls are to make the best progress,

school personnel need to work out a balance between the two. If the children's learning in school is to be characterized by a desirable degree of continuity, those who have the responsibility for teaching must have insight and sensitivity to the learner. Understanding boys and girls, their needs and their interests, is also a prerequisite for planning an appropriate curriculum for them, individually and as a group.

Thus it follows that if those concerned with the educative process understand the boys and girls with whom they work, they will be in a position to provide a better articulated school program for them. The present chapter is a description of a cooperative study by a group of school principals. It is included here because it shows how a group of school people can improve their understanding of children and youth and at the same time build a better articulated total school program. The material which follows is an account written by a member of the group that made the study. No other group would conduct a study in exactly the same way, but the report has many implications for any group of teachers or supervisory personnel who sincerely wish to improve their own understandings of child growth and development.

The situation in which the study took place is a rapidly changing one. According to the latest census figures, this southern city is the fastest growing city in the state and one of the fastest growing cities in the United States. The phenomenal population growth of the city and its surrounding area is the result of industrial development. The industrial wealth of the immediate area has almost doubled in the period during and following World War II. The place is no longer "the Old South." Growth and change have been continuous. Not only have population statistics changed; equally striking are the changes in tradition, social background, values and aspirations of the people.

The First Year of Study

The changing situation is represented also by the fact that six years ago this study would have affected indirectly 8595 students and 280 teachers whereas at present it affects 13,882 students and 465 teachers. Concomitant adjustments are being made by shifting families, rezoning of school lines, school construction as a result of a local \$46½ million bond issue, influx of school population with a variety of family backgrounds and experiences. Briefly this is the setting for our principals' in-service education project.

How the Study Started

This study evolved as a result of several factors. At first a special guidance committee, consisting of principals, teachers and supervisors,

met to consider use of test results. These test results had grown out of a system-wide testing program conducted during the previous session. The consultant at this meeting was the director of instruction.

At the first meeting, during much discussion, many hidden questions came to the surface, such as:

"We have achievement tests on students throughout the 68 schools in our system—so what?"

"What is a norm and what is its value?"

"Does this mean we are comparing the norms of our pupils with the norms of pupils in New York, Mobile, Salt Lake City, or just what does it mean?"

"Do we want to do that?"

"I would question comparing one school with another, one teacher with another, or one system with another."

"Did we mean to make comparisons?"

"Then why were all the tests given at the same time and the results all compiled in one office?"

"Achievement tests have a place if used properly but they do not measure what we are after in present-day education."

"What do you mean?"

"For example, do our tests measure the pupil's ability to use a problem solving approach or to think creatively? Do our tests show how the learner feels about himself in school situations?"

From these questions and comments one can discern the presence of anxiety and concern among members of the group. Implications of these questions seemed so deep that immediate agreement was not possible. In time the group agreed to list all problems and consider the use of test results in relation to them. The group agreed further that the problems were of such significance that all principals should be given an opportunity to consider them along with this small group.

An invitation was then given to all principals to attend an exploratory meeting. In response, 17 of the 22 principals attended, representing every type of school in the system:

- 2 elementary-junior-senior high schools
- 2 junior-senior high schools
- 1 senior high school
- 11 elementary schools
- 1 junior high school.

Organizing the Group for Study

At the beginning of the study or project, the group decided to establish some ground rules. Meetings were to be held twice a month for

a period of one and one-half hours, with participation on a voluntary basis. The group further agreed that the setting for each meeting should be conducive to group communication, that is, in a relatively quiet place with movable furniture, chalk board, projector, tape recorder and any other essential material. Also it was agreed that the group would divide into smaller, flexible working subgroups as the need arose. In general, seating arrangement was in a circle so as to allow for maximum participation by group members.

A planning committee evolved because there was a feeling that this would give our work more consistent direction and continuity. Its major responsibility was to bring together the various suggestions and concerns of the participants. Members of this planning committee assisted the chairman of each meeting in planning time, activities and procedures. Provision was made to rotate the responsibilities of chairman and recorder; to give continuity to planning, however, the recorder for one meeting was chairman of the next meeting. In addition both the chairman and recorder of the last meeting became ex-officio members of the planning committee for the following meeting.

The Emerging Problem

The study originated, as described above, in a meeting called to study test results. At the first meeting of the expanded group, other problem areas were brought up. Soon the group had before it this list of problem areas:

Reading	Delinquency
Over-age children	Understanding children and youth
How children learn	Professional growth
Use of test results	Drop-outs.

As the discussion progressed, it became necessary to define a long range goal. The group agreed that this long range goal, or purpose, was to provide for greater self-realization for children and youth in school in terms of their aptitudes, abilities and aspirations. For instance, as the group thought in terms of long range purpose the members shifted their attention from the use of test results to a broader question—a consideration of why the tests were given in the first place. They recognized that achievement tests in some degree measure academic achievement; but they also began to think of the child with all his hopes, feelings and aspirations, and saw the limitations of relying solely (or even primarily) on test results.

At this meeting, the group decided to work on "Understanding Children and Youth." This broad area was delimited later by focusing

on the more specific but common concern: "Promotion and Retention in Relation to Understanding Children and Youth."

Cooperative Research

For methodology the group agreed upon a problem solving approach. As soon as the problem was defined, the members began to raise questions or hypotheses. The selection of hypotheses, they discovered, was based partly on actual data already available, partly on the beliefs of individual members of the principals' group, partly on reported research, and partly on ideas developed in the group itself.

Hypotheses selected: 1. All phases of growth and development are considered in promoting and/or retaining children and youth.

2. We take into account the feelings of the child when promoting and/or retaining him.

3. We take into account the feelings of the parents when promoting and/or retaining the child.

4. If grade standards dominate promotion and retention more students will be retained.

5. There is a direct positive relationship between understanding children and promotion.

Collection and analysis of students' reactions: Various faculty study groups were also working in a manner similar to that being used in the principals' study group. Through cooperation with these faculty groups, 620 students throughout the system were polled for their reactions to promotion and/or retention. These excerpts indicate the type of material gathered about children's feelings concerning promotion and retention:

Pupil L.: If I fail I will feel bad and ashamed to be in a room with smaller children.

Pupil D.: I failed in the third grade. The reason I failed was my mother moved to the country until we could find another house. My mother and father separated and the rent was two months behind. I did not go to school in the country because I did not have a birth certificate. When we moved back I had been out too many days to pass. My mother had promised me a watch if I passed. I felt very bad when I started back to school the next year.

Pupil K.: How would I feel about failure? I would be sad. I would be mad. I would run. I would be bad.

The unstructured data were analyzed in the study group to find the common threads of children's feelings and concerns. These common elements seemed to be:

1. Feeling of hate, anger, embarrassment and gloom
2. Feeling that they would have done better if passed
3. Feeling that failure caused them "to lose courage" and "give up"
4. Fear of punishment by parents and not pleasing parents
5. Feeling of resentment for teachers who had retained them
6. Concern for losing friends and classmates.

Analysis of parents' reactions: A similar analysis of parents' reactions to promotion and retention of their children showed their most frequently recurring beliefs to be these:

1. Mastery of subject matter should be the basis for promotion.
2. If a child attends school regularly, he should be promoted.

These two statements, taken together, seem to conflict with each other. To the parents, however, the apparent contradiction was resolved by this line of reasoning: (a) they had seen their children learning from birth, so they knew their children could learn; (b) accordingly, if the children attended school, they *could* learn "their subjects"; (c) therefore, promotion was in order for children who attended school.

Further, of the sampling of parents contacted for this study, 24.1% believed that school "should promote the slow child who does his best" and 12.7% believed that "children's feelings should be considered" when the decision was made as to whether or not they were to be promoted.

Study of statements by teachers and principals: The principals' study group also gathered reactions from teachers and principals, including themselves. Since teachers and principals reacted similarly, their statements were treated together. Their comments about promotion and retention covered a wide range of opinion, as shown by these examples:

Teacher C.: The pupil is so stigmatized by being held back he tends to become bored with repetition and he fails to learn well even on second exposure.¹

Teacher I.: I believe a child should not be promoted until he has acquired certain grade standards.

Teacher F.: I believe the child should be promoted because there is no set time when any specific learning must occur for all children. Failure is especially disastrous to the very young child because he is learning his response to living. Evidence shows that the average levels of achievement tend to be higher in schools in which the nonpromotion rates are low. Out

¹ This statement is supported by research, as reported in: Hollis L. Caswell and A. W. Foshay. *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1950. John I. Goodlad. "To Promote or Not to Promote?" *Childhood Education* 30: 212-15; January 1954.

of a group of repeaters about 20 percent will do better; 40 percent show no change; and 40 percent will actually do worse.²

Principal M.: Boys and girls have to learn early to "toe the mark." Social promotion causes poor discipline.

Principal B.: I believe that promotions and failures should be decided on the basis of the whole child. Our decision should not rest entirely on academic accomplishment but what will result in the greatest good to all-around development of the pupil.³

Principal D.: We would not be getting so many "dumb bunnies" in high school if they would hold them in elementary school. If they don't make the standard in their subjects they certainly shouldn't pass. No one profits by getting something for nothing.

At the beginning of the study, teachers and principals were about evenly divided concerning rigid promotion and retention policies based on subject matter attainment. As the project continued and as group members became more aware of the growth, development and learning processes of their students, a change in attitude became apparent. Promotion policies also changed in the direction of the attitude change, that is, away from rigid application of fixed rules and toward consideration of each case in terms of the best interests of the particular child.

Tentative Conclusions and Implications

The various phases of this study proceeded simultaneously rather than sequentially. Opinions of children, parents, teachers and principals were checked against research and opinions of educational authorities. The opinions and the research literature were also related to the five hypotheses set up at the beginning of the study. Some of these tended to be validated; others invalidated. At the end of the first year's study project the group agreed on the following conclusions and implications for application.

Tentative conclusions: 1. There is a direct positive relationship between our understanding of children and our promotion policy.

2. If grade standards dominate promotion and retention policies, more students will be retained. (Collectively about one-fifth of the statements from parents, teachers and principals indicate that grade standards should dominate our policy.)

² This statement is supported by research completed in a graduate course at Louisiana State University under direction of Dr. L. L. Fulmer.

³ This statement is supported by research reported in: Henry J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944.

3. All phases of growth and development should be considered in promoting and/or retaining children and youth.

4. Research seems to indicate that most students do not really profit by retention.

Implications for practice: 1. Principals, teachers and parents should know how boys and girls (the learners) feel about school.

2. Principals and teachers should be instrumental in detecting the needs of children and youth and in planning to meet these needs.

The Second Year of Study

The principals' study group resumed its project at the beginning of the next school year. Contributing to the group's enthusiasm was a summer conference which had focused on the principal's role in leadership.

Selecting a Problem

In the early fall the group had an exploratory meeting at which time the selection of a problem for professional study was paramount. In this meeting the chairman asked group members to express their views on what might be a good point to begin. One suggestion was that the group should continue the previous year's study of understanding children. Another suggestion was that the group might study a particular phase of the curriculum; another, that the group might study continuity of the total school program from Grades 1 through 12. One person suggested that each member of the group might list important topics for the year's study. Additional topics presented were: (a) school records as a basis for understanding children; (b) planning for meeting individual differences in the classroom; and (c) enriching curriculum to meet individual needs.

These suggestions were considered as the group selected a common problem for the year's study that might encompass all the concerns of its members. After much thought and discussion, the group decided to continue its study of "Understanding Children and Youth"; however, it planned to work specifically on "Detecting the Needs of Boys and Girls and Planning To Meet Those Needs." This choice grew out of one of the implications drawn from the group's first year of study on promotion and retention in relation to understanding children and youth.

Detecting Learners' Needs

At the time of this writing, the group has spent four months detecting needs of the learner. Data have been collected by:

1. Observations of children as individuals in various situations
2. Home visits
3. Sociometric devices
4. Health checks
5. Projective techniques
6. Various tests (teacher made, pupil made, and standardized)
7. Children's creative work
8. Study of research in the field (research by Louis Raths, Daniel Prescott, Ruth Cunningham, and others).

Beginning To Plan for Meeting Pupil Needs

As the group analyzes its data the members are finding that every child has health, social, and self needs. Although all children have common needs, the group has found through analysis of its observations that each individual has his unique method of meeting these needs. As a phase of its on-going procedure the group is now moving into the next phase of the project, planning for meeting boys' and girls' needs as we detect these needs. The group hopes that this will bring about better learning situations in the schools with the result that students will move through school more smoothly, because better articulation is fundamental to the optimum development of children and youth.

Evaluating Progress to Date

At the time of this writing, the principals' project is still in process. Likewise each principal has a professional faculty study group in his school that is concerned with "Understanding Children and Youth." Members of the project will probably continue to grow in their understanding of children and youth as long as they are concerned about what happens to boys and girls in the educative process; and there will usually be implications or inferences for articulation. Because it is impossible to give a descriptive account of what the future holds for this principals' project, it may be well to stop briefly and take an introspective look at what has happened to members of this group. Participants in any on-going project need to analyze their attitudes and feelings about what is happening, to take a look at themselves as individuals and as a group. With that purpose in mind, members of this group chose to make a tape recording of a discussion of the project. Following is an account of the tape as recorded on that occasion:

Mr. G.: Do you recall when this group first began a year and a half ago? The original objective was to use achievement test results and arrive at norms for our students. We have moved a long way from that, haven't we?

Of course, it has meant a redirection of our energies as we principals redefined our purpose. Now, we are ready for a discussion of our project, "Understanding Children and Youth," and to see its relationship to articulation. In other words, how has this cooperative endeavor helped us to provide opportunities for boys and girls to move through school more smoothly?

Mrs. G.: May I begin by saying that a change of attitudes by the persons involved, the principals, is a fundamental factor in this matter of articulation.

Mr. G.: If the values held by elementary, junior, and senior high school principals are compatible, if they value similar things for youngsters in our schools, then you feel this is a necessary prerequisite for a better articulated program.

Mr. X.: Well, how did this change in values come about?

Miss C.: It seems to me that we developed similar values and understandings as we worked together and especially as we worked on common problems. As each person made his contribution toward the solution of common concerns we gained respect for each other, arrived at common understandings of the principles which underlie the various issues.

Mrs. W.: As you mention principles and understandings that seem to underlie our attitudes and values, I am reminded of how we became interested and shared in the common problem of increased understanding of our boys and girls by detecting their needs and planning to meet them.

Mr. G.: The understanding of fundamental needs of boys and girls seems basic to a well-articulated school program, doesn't it?

Mrs. Y.: You mentioned needs, Mr. G. What about needs? Let's pursue that point.

Mrs. H.: In the elementary school we found that students not only had academic needs, but they had certain emotional needs: affection, belonging and adequacy. As an elementary principal I observed that as we worked with high school and junior high school principals we found that they also saw these same needs manifested by their students.

Mr. P.: Some needs were indicated in the reactions gathered from children with reference to promotion and retention. They definitely expressed certain strong feelings about being retained.

Mrs. B.: Yes, Mr. P., evidences from our study also indicate that children had strong feelings about separating themselves from their friends as a result of failing in school. I recall they made such statements as: "If I fail I will feel bad and ashamed to be in the room with small children." Another said, "I will be ashamed to face my friends who have gone on to the next grade."

Mrs. K.: In a similar vein we noticed that one youngster in our school said, "When I failed in the tenth grade, I was hurt. Although I did learn more the next year I became bored at times and I surely did miss my friends, too."

Miss C.: That is true, Mrs. K., but our study also revealed that our students were concerned about parental aspiration. Many of them naturally wanted to be loved and accepted by their parents so they wanted to pass in order to give their parents this satisfying experience.

Mrs. G.: That causes me to think of another facet of our study. The last three comments have been based on findings taken from faculty study groups that grew out of this principals' project. I was in a faculty group the other day in which members had much sociometric information on their youngsters. The teachers also had studied the feelings of the youngsters who were isolated and how new youngsters felt about being in the school. Do we have any other experiences from our faculty study groups that were used in our principals' project?

Miss C.: Christine, an interesting fifth grade girl, is a case in point. As a result of objective data obtained from anecdotal observations in various situations, three different sociograms, and her feelings as revealed in projective techniques, we found that she was neither in nor out with her peers, although she was accepted by adults in the school system. This was quite revealing to us because she has good academic training plus leadership ability.

Mr. G.: In other words, she was adequate but since she was neither accepted nor rejected this influenced her feelings about school.

Mr. P.E.: You mentioned adequacy. It seems to me that much of our data points toward the importance of feeling adequate—adequate at all grade levels. For first graders, for seventh, for eleventh graders to feel adequate has implications for articulation. As principals understand the importance of feeling adequate then it follows they must make provision in school activities for children to achieve, to feel successful, to gain recognition, and thus feel adequate about themselves.

Mrs. B.: Before we leave this consideration of needs, I would like to point out that our study revealed that children in our school had many physical needs. Our evidence shows that poor physical health played a part in preventing some children from attending school regularly while others could not achieve because they had certain physical defects. Each of these factors has a direct bearing on the learner's progress in school. Also as a direct result of our study we came to realize that most forms of learning cannot take place until children are ready in general physical development and in interest and willingness to learn. This knowledge contributed greatly to our being able to help students meet academic needs.

Mr. G.: We are saying, aren't we, that one avenue for understanding our boys and girls is to look at the common needs they have from kindergarten through senior high school? Specifically we have information pertaining to acceptance and adequacy needs. Louis Rath has mentioned these in his "An Application to Education of the Needs Theory." We also have objective data to support the hypothesis: Children will move through school more

smoothly when certain physical needs (health factors and nutrition) are met.

Mr. P.: Yes, that is true, because we had facts from the recorded objective data on boys and girls that support your statement.

Mrs. B.: I think that has been one of the most significant outcomes of our study thus far. As we began to realize the great importance of recording objective information concerning the individual (from which we and the teachers could intelligently diagnose children's needs), these records have been made a part of our permanent cumulative records. We now transmit these records from grade to grade, from teacher to teacher, and from unit to unit in our school system. As a result of this recorded information, teachers receiving the record are able to use the information in developing insight and understanding regarding the child.

Mr. P.E.: Basic understandings of the growth and development of children and youth are also needed on the part of the principal and teacher who receive these records of children who move from teacher to teacher or from school to school.

Mrs. W.: This suggests a need for understanding of all students in our schools by all those who are guiding them in the learning process. Understanding of students is something that we shall continue to need as long as we have the jobs that we have. New research in this area confronts us daily.

Mr. P.E.: How true and how important.

Mr. X.: In other words, you mean, Mr. P.E., that unless the new teacher who receives the recorded information about a child has the needed understanding and perception it will be less beneficial.

Mr. G.: So it is good that we not only have a principals' in-service project of this type but that we have faculty groups that are working in a similar manner toward knowing more about boys and girls. As the leaders and co-leaders of these faculty groups come together each month and work on problems of leadership in this area of understanding children, there is a further meeting of the minds; therefore, when the youngster moves from one school to another he should not have the problem of adjustment that he ordinarily would have.

Mr. P.: All of us who are concerned with teaching are becoming more proficient in recognizing children's needs. As we, the principals and teachers, discover the needs of boys and girls in our own schools, we are making adjustments in the school curriculum accordingly.

Mrs. J.: So far we have focused on common needs as a channel for understanding children and youth. There are some other concepts that seem significant. Although I know we shall not have time to develop them in this discussion, we could at least mention a few of them here, for example, the concept of individual differences.

Mrs. H.: You mean, each person is a "custom-made job"?

Mr. G.: Mrs. H., we have research to substantiate the platitude that each

person is a "custom-made job." Through the unique way the male and female chromosomes unite, there results only one of a kind, except in the case of identical twins. Even there, environment makes a difference. Our observations and the use of the Wetzel Grid Graph tend to confirm Mrs. H.'s statement on the uniqueness of the individual, doesn't it? Analysis of children's reactions to school situations and the use of projective techniques revealed the individuality of feelings. For example, feelings of regret and other emotions were manifested in a unique manner.

Mrs. G.: I hope it is appropriate for me to say at this time that as we obtained data on how children felt about themselves in school achievement and social acceptance peer situations, we began to gain insight into the private world of the youngster. His feelings about himself, his teacher, his school, and the world in which he lives (his self-concept) have inferences for articulation. Of course, this is contingent upon whether we believe the learner himself is the key figure in this matter of moving through school smoothly.

(Up to this point the tape recording revealed that each person was speaking immediately following the other. At this time there was a pause—silence—for a brief period.)

Mrs. W.: May I interrupt your train of thinking and break the silence (not that that is bad) by saying this leads us to see the place of our study in terms of purpose.

Mrs. J.: That was mentioned earlier, Miss C., I believe.

Miss C.: I shall probably say it a different way this time but essentially we believe in the fullest development of each boy and girl in terms of talents, abilities, and dreams or aspirations as long as these are in keeping with our democratic way of life.

Mr. G.: Let me try to develop that. Let's see if I can pull the needs theory together. Mr. P. mentioned the physical necessity of youngsters' being in school; Mrs. B. called our attention to the fact that after the youngster is in school there are certain physical and health factors that we must consider, such as his eyesight, hearing, his food, and the physical set-up of the classroom and the school. In addition to physical factors there are other universal emotional needs: a feeling of security which is nourished by love and a feeling of belonging which is nourished by being accepted. If these two fundamental needs are met, the learner is more likely to achieve in terms of his potential. As he achieves and gets recognition for his successes, he will be more adequate and he will feel more adequate. This will cause him to feel more positive about himself, the school, the community and the world in which he lives. As Miss C. said in the beginning of this discussion, he is likely to attain better self-realization. As Maslow has said in his writing, he becomes a more self-actualized youngster in terms of his individual abilities, aptitudes and aspirations.

Outcomes and Implications

The principals' group has not yet completed its study but has evidence that several changes have been taking place in the attitudes of its members:

1. There is more of a "meeting of the minds" of elementary, junior high school, and senior high school principals in terms of human values and their relationship to educational objectives.
2. There is increased realization that continuity of learning is within the learner. He, the learner, provides his own unique meaning, interpretation, internalization and organization of his learning experience. Principals and teachers merely facilitate that process.
3. Continuity in learning is contingent on how the learner feels about himself and the learning situation.
4. Detecting the varying needs of individuals and the common needs of all is a prerequisite to making plans for meeting these needs in school situations.
5. We need understanding of the individual patterns of growth, development and learning if we are to provide the kinds of activities and experiences that will help the learner move through school more smoothly.

Chapter Summary

In a rapidly growing, rapidly changing industrial community, a group of elementary and secondary school principals joined in a cooperative study of children and youth. This chapter has told the story of their study for all of one year and part of the next.

Beginning with attention focused on use of test results, the group progressed through consideration of various related topics and finally decided to devote itself during the first year to a study of promotion and retention in relation to understanding children and youth. First, group members set up some working hypotheses. Then, cooperating with faculty study groups in the individual schools, they gathered data from children, parents, teachers and principals as to their reactions to promotion and retention practices. These unstructured data were analyzed for predominating threads of emphasis, which were checked against available research data and opinions of authorities in education and psychology. Findings were also related to the original working hypotheses. At the end of the first year of study, some tentative conclusions were drawn. These conclusions indicated some shift in viewpoint away from reliance on rigid rules and standards for promotion and retention and toward careful study of each case in relation to the total situation and the best interests of the individual child.

Two final implications for practice were: (a) principals, teachers and

parents should know how boys and girls (the learners) feel about school; and (b) principals and teachers should be instrumental in detecting the needs of children and youth and in planning to meet those needs.

For the second year, the principals' group (and faculty groups in the individual schools) decided to center attention upon: "Detecting the Needs of Boys and Girls and Planning To Meet Those Needs." This was obviously a direct outgrowth of the implications drawn from the first year's study. Again the group proceeded to gather information. Their sources were observations of individual children, home visits, sociometric devices, health checks, projective techniques, a variety of tests, children's creative work, and research in the field.

The report which makes up most of this chapter ends with a report of an evaluative group discussion held in January of the second year of study. The principals in the study group agreed that: (a) their study of children and youth had resulted in a "meeting of minds" of elementary, junior high school, and senior high school principals; (b) each learner has his own unique pattern of achieving continuity in learning which can be improved by proper help from principals and teachers; (c) continuity in learning depends on the learner's feelings about himself and the learning situation; (d) to plan adequately for meeting learners' needs, teachers and principals need first to detect what those needs are, for individuals and for all learners; and (e) school personnel need understanding of human growth, development and learning if they are to provide for learners the kinds of experiences which will help children move through school with the highest quality of steady progress.

Approaching Continuity Through Instructional Materials

THE MECHANIC or the carpenter has his tools, the farmer, his implements; the cook, his utensils; the surgeon or musician, his instruments. Most workers need some sort of "tools of the trade." Teachers and students, young or old, are no exception. Learning in or out of school is, of course, possible without tools; but it is often greatly helped by the presence of the right instructional materials or equipment at the right time. Providing the materials that each learner needs at each stage of his educational development is a responsibility of schools, for it has much to do with promoting his continuous educational progress.

Situations revolving around subject matter considerations rank third in frequency of mention by students as being helps or hindrances to their progress through school (Graph I, Chapter 2). Subject matter is closely associated with instructional materials and usually implies the use of materials or equipment. In Graph XII in Chapter 4 we note that 50.7% of the responses of students were in the nature of positive reactions to subject matter, while 49.3% represented negative reactions. In other words, about half of the pupils who told of subject matter centered situations indicated that these situations had been a hindrance to well-articulated learning. The chances are that difficulty with materials and a lack of proper materials were two of the chief causes of these difficulties with subject matter.

The selection and use of instructional materials so that each pupil has the material he needs in every learning situation is a problem of all schools and of all teachers. Proper selection and effective use of materials contribute greatly to continuity of learning for boys and girls. This chapter discusses some factors related to selection and use of materials as aids to continuity in learning.

Many writers emphasize the need for an abundance and variety of

teaching-learning materials. It is conceivable that the requirement of "abundance and variety" could be met and still not assure that every learner in a given situation would have the exact material that he needed to achieve his purpose. This concept of abundance and variety fosters the notion that materials should be collected in abundance and that the more material that is available, the greater is the likelihood that every learner will have the proper material. This does not assure, however, that the material needed for every learning situation will be available. We must recognize that we need to know: what it is that we expect the individual to learn; what the abilities, needs and interests of the learner are; and the skill of the teacher in using the material. Continuity of learning is improved when the learner has the materials he needs to experience success in his learning tasks.

An Analogy on the Use of Tools

A small area in one of the Southern states was once a great vegetable producing district. When vegetable production was no longer a profitable venture, many of the farmers turned to cattle raising. They used their farm land to raise feed for the cattle. One of the crops raised was sorghum, which was cut and stored in a silo for winter feeding. The most economical and practical kind of silo for these farmers was the trench silo (a trench or hole dug in the ground).

The County Road Department made available to the farmers a dragline and a bulldozer for digging the trench silos. Some of the farmers had tractors and others had mule-drawn equipment which could be used to do the task. The farmers who knew how to operate the dragline used this piece of equipment for digging the silo. Some could not operate the dragline but could use the bulldozer. Others could not operate either of these but could operate a tractor and tractor-drawn equipment to do the job. Still others could not operate any of the machines and so used mule-drawn equipment. Some did the job more quickly and economically than others, but most of them, using the tools they knew how to use and knew would do the job, experienced success and satisfaction in digging silos. Several parallels may be drawn between this instance of digging trench silos and the selection and use of instructional materials.

Abundance and Variety Not Enough

Let us suppose that the most effective tools and equipment were not available to all the farmers, even though a wide variety of other tools and equipment was present in abundance on each farm. The

abundance and variety of tools and equipment available would not then insure that the proper materials were available to do the specific job at hand efficiently. Without the equipment necessary to do the job well, the farmers would not have been able to handle most profitably the crops usually stored in the trench silos. This in turn might have meant failure at cattle raising.

Many times schools secure a variety of materials before school begins or before the teachers who are to make use of them know what they are going to use them for or which ones the learners can use with success. This is not to say that no materials should be secured before the opening of school. Certainly there are many materials that a teacher would use during the school year regardless of the range of differences among his pupils. For instance, a gardener does not wait until the weeds come up to decide that he needs a hoe. Likewise, the school knows that certain materials will be needed and they should be procured so that they will be available at the time they are needed.

Different Tools for Different Workers

Then let us suppose that all the farmers had been forced to use the dragline or the bulldozer to dig the trench silos. Those who were able to operate these machines would have experienced success and satisfaction in doing the job. Others, because of their intelligence or aptitude in the use of machines, might have succeeded in digging a hole in the ground, however irregular and ill-shaped it might have been. With practice and an adequate amount of instruction and guidance, these farmers might have become successful operators. Still others would have experienced frustration and failure. With repeated failure they may have lapsed into inactivity, contributing nothing to the project at hand.

When all children in a class or grade are given the same book or material with which to work, they often show results similar to those described above. Some will experience success easily; others will eventually succeed with expert guidance and instruction; and still others will fail miserably. With repeated failure, these pupils will become discouraged, disinterested, and convinced that they are failures. They are likely to become trouble makers, contributing nothing to their own development or to the development of the group. Continuity in learning is blocked and satisfactory articulation is made impossible under these conditions.

Skill in Use of Tools a Developmental Process

These farmers were not permanently limited to the use of the same equipment every time they dug a trench silo. Some of them might move

from the use of the most elementary types of manually operated tools to the use of the most complicated and efficient piece of machinery. To do this they must be motivated to increase their proficiency in the use of machinery, they must be provided with the instruction and guidance needed, and they must be provided with experiences which permit the development of the skill necessary to operate the more complicated machinery successfully. At any given time, each man should use the tools that are available and will do the job; but he will experience most satisfaction and success if he learns to use proficiently more and more efficient equipment.

Similarly, children should be helped continually to improve their competence in the use of learning materials if learning is to be characterized by a desirable degree of continuity from level to level. They should move from the use of more elementary to more difficult materials which bring them greater and greater satisfaction and success. The material that a pupil can use cannot always be determined by the grade or class in which he is enrolled. Children do not progress in ability to use material of increasing difficulty in terms of sudden changes at the end of a semester or school year. Their growth in the use of materials should progress steadily. They should not be forced to wait until the end of the semester or until they reach a higher grade in school before being allowed to use materials which they are capable of using and which will contribute to better continuity of their learning.

These simple illustrations emphasize the importance of intelligent selection and use of materials. The picture has been oversimplified; but the farming situation has implications and problems which parallel the use of instructional materials in school. The tools and machinery that each farmer used were best selected after determining what job was to be done, what tools were available, and which tools each farmer was most capable of using to complete the particular job. The tools available did not dictate the task to be done; rather the task to be done and the abilities of the farmers to operate various pieces of machinery dictated the tools to be used. Instructional materials used in school should not dictate the learning tasks to be done; rather the purposes of education and the present abilities of the learners should suggest the instructional materials to be used. If that is done, continuity of school learning will be facilitated.

Materials Adapted to Individual Differences

It is well known that children in any one school class or grade vary widely in ability, interest and background for a given learning experience or activity. The range of abilities, interests and background within

any one grade level is greater than the differences between averages of adjacent grades.

The importance of basing the children's learning experiences on a knowledge and understanding of how individuals grow and develop has been emphasized in Chapters 7, 8 and 9. This is so basic that it must be considered whether we are talking about growth and development, learning, educational objectives, or curriculum development. In Chapter 8, for example, this principle is stated: "The levels of attainment of objectives for each student should be, qualitatively and quantitatively, those which are appropriate to each student, not those assumed to be appropriate for a mythical 'average child.'"¹ Continuity of learning experiences cannot be attained for groups except as continuity is experienced by the individuals in the group.

We need to accept individual differences as being natural rather than something odd. Differences are good, desirable and wholesome. They create harmony and beauty in the world and make life interesting. Society pays a big premium for differences. A quartet would lose its richness of tone if all its members sang alto, or an orchestra if everybody played the same instrument. The world would not honor a person as a great athlete who could run a mile in less than four minutes if nearly everybody could run that fast. No artist has ever created a masterpiece using just one color and shade of paint. Automobile manufacturers spend millions of dollars each year to design a car that is different. Indeed, this would be a drab world if everybody looked alike, if we all had the same interests and abilities, if no one excelled in engineering or art or music.

Fitting Printed Materials to Individual Needs and Abilities

The way instructional materials in a school are used is one of the best evidences of whether differences are really considered. When every pupil in a grade or class uses exactly the same textbooks and other materials, individual differences are probably not receiving the attention they deserve. If we are to have well-articulated experiences for all children in school, it is high time that schools and teachers give more than lip service to this important problem. Until this is done we cannot possibly have the maximum in smooth progression from one grade level to the next. Many people still think, in spite of all that has been said and written and done about individual differences, that if a certain set of content were prescribed for each grade, all children could cover all of it. Obviously, differences among children will not permit this.

¹ Chapter 8, p. 122.

Many teachers do select printed materials for children and youth in accordance with their needs and abilities. What is needed, however, is a genuine acceptance of differences by all school people.

Another practice with respect to materials that indicates lack of consideration of individual differences, and which makes articulation difficult, is the statement found in some courses of study and regulations in individual schools to the effect that children may use any material in school which is below their grade level but may never use materials which "belong" to a higher grade level. The idea seems to be that we are going to pay attention to individual differences this year, but next year the child is going to revert to being strictly a uniform product. If, in the sixth grade, the child reads seventh grade material with ease, certainly when he gets to the seventh grade he is going to be able to read something other than the book he read when he was in the sixth grade. This is true in any area: reading, social studies, arithmetic or science. Continuity of learning experience is aided when pupils who are ready for more difficult materials are permitted to work with them.

Selecting and Purchasing Printed Materials

Do teachers really consider differences when they select material for their pupils? Do they consider the problems of articulation and how the choice of materials may help or hinder smooth progression for pupils as they move through the school program? What happens when elementary school teachers order such materials as children's weekly newspapers? Practices vary but the general pattern is that the third grade teacher orders enough copies on the third grade level for each of her pupils; the fourth grade teacher orders enough copies on the fourth grade level for each of her pupils, and so on. This is a common practice in spite of the fact that the teachers know that all of their children do not read on the same level. What happens when materials are selected for a unit in social studies in the junior high school or high school? Do all children in the class have the same material? If so, then we may be sure that individual differences are not receiving the attention they deserve. These are evidences that we have not internalized the concept of individual differences, that we have not accepted it to the extent that it has become so much a part of us that it changes our behavior with respect to the selection and use of instructional materials.

It is disturbing to consider that schools are not always "out front" in providing for individual differences. For many years publishers have recognized that material written on a particular reading level may be used profitably at many different grade levels when children with varying reading abilities are engaged in purposeful activities. For this

reason they have attempted to publish material which is not marked strictly for third grade or tenth grade. Publishers, however, are in business for profit and they must please the customer. The insistence on the part of some teachers that materials shall be marked as to grade level has delayed the benefits that could result from the use of materials not so specifically marked.

Ungraded Nature of Some Materials

Actually, grade levels cannot be strictly assigned to many instructional materials. While some published materials are used at one grade level more often than they are used at other grade levels, this does not mean necessarily that they could not or should not be used at other grade levels. But what about other materials? For example: Can we label air, or water, or heat as belonging to any particular grade? Can we so label vinegar, or soda, or matches and candles? What about a test tube, or an opaque projector, or an abacus? All these are instructional materials too and they can be used at any grade level where they are appropriate aids to learning.

Certain concepts and procedures in arithmetic are normally introduced at specific grade levels in the elementary school. For instance, long division is usually introduced at the fourth or fifth grade level. Percentage comes later, usually in the sixth grade or in junior high school. Some children are ready and capable of going beyond the arithmetic work prescribed for their grade. To fail to give a pupil the opportunity of working at the level of his capability and interest may cause him to become complacent about his work and to form poor habits of study. This would tend to create, rather than prevent, a problem of articulation. If a pupil can do problems in percentage while he is in the sixth grade, that will not limit what he is able to do in mathematics in the seventh grade.

Parents and Graded Materials

Schools have not helped parents as much as they should in understanding why it is desirable and necessary for different children in the same grade to use different books or other materials. Some parents are disturbed when they discover that their children are using one book while other children in the same group are using another. For this reason many schools have used "differences" as a topic for discussion with parent groups. They have found that parents do understand the fact of differences once they have studied its basis and will then accept and support the use of varied materials with their children.

What Materials Are Available?

Materials come from many sources. A great deal of planning and work is necessary to make materials available to boys and girls in their classrooms. Teachers who want to make continuity of learning possible for their pupils are constantly searching for materials that will assist in this. For a teacher to secure needed materials requires the cooperative effort of administrators and supervisors as well as teachers and pupils. If we are to have a well-articulated instructional program, teachers must know what materials are available, where they are located, and how they may be obtained quickly and easily.

In the Individual School

Continuity of learning is more likely to occur in situations where teachers share materials and where steps are taken to acquaint the whole faculty with the materials that are in the school. When teachers do not know what is available in their own schools, boys and girls are being denied opportunities for the learning experiences these materials could help make available to them. This situation frequently exists in schools where there is no central library or materials center for storing supplies and other materials so that they are available when needed. Sometimes there needs to be, however, a change of attitude on the part of classroom teachers with respect to their use of materials. Some teachers assume an attitude of ownership of any material that is brought into, or developed, in their classrooms. They may guard it jealously and refuse to share it with other teachers. Capable supervisory leadership can and should correct such situations.

An elementary school supervisor, working recently with a large elementary school faculty to secure adequate reading materials at all levels in Grades 1-6, found that an attitude of private ownership was prevalent among the teachers. Over a period of time he was able to change this attitude somewhat and the teachers agreed to gather resource materials from every classroom and to store them in a central place. Shelves were emptied, locked closets were opened and cleaned out, closed storage spaces were cleared, filing cabinets and boxes were emptied, and desk drawers gave up their burden of hidden materials. Everyone was surprised to find that the school owned hundreds of books, many of which the children then in school had never seen before.

The reading level of the books which were brought in from the various rooms ranged from preprimer to high school. Many of these materials contained stories that the children had never read or heard.

Social studies, arithmetic, English, and literature books appeared by the score. Reference books, including encyclopedias, some complete and some partial, were brought in; more than a hundred flat pictures, neatly mounted and filed in folders, made their appearance. Other kinds of instructional materials, such as maps, filmstrips and records, were found. Of course, a great deal of material which should have been discarded years before was uncovered.

The teachers were enthusiastic about the results. They worked out a system of checking out materials, using them and returning them to the materials center for others to use. They reported that they now had more material available on different levels of difficulty than they had ever had before.

Continuity of learning is enhanced when instructional materials are available at the time they are needed. For instance, a film on "Life along the Congo River" loses much of its value as an aid to learning if it is procured a month after the project on the Congo is completed and while the class is engaged in a study of "Cattle Raising in Argentina." Many times such materials are in the school but are not used at the right time because of lack of information.

An inventory of materials and equipment is especially beneficial to new teachers coming into a school. Many teachers, through years of teaching, have lacked materials which were in the school but were unknown or unavailable to the prospective users.

Eye and Lane² report statements from three teachers who had such experiences. One was a biology teacher who taught for a year in a school before he learned that there was a greenhouse on the roof of the building. The principal said he assumed that the teacher knew about it. Another was an English teacher who heard that there was an album of records suitable for use in her senior English class. She could never find it, but in searching for it, found other transcriptions suitable for use in other classes. If she had been provided with a list of materials that were available, her work would have been much easier and pleasanter. The third was an agriculture teacher who ordered a seed display and a chart showing the common weeds. After these arrived, he found the same display and chart above the tool cabinet in the farm shop. With these he found other displays which he could have used earlier in the year. Such practices, which are all too common, represent a waste of money which public schools can ill afford. Worst of all, they represent wasted opportunities for boys and girls. Most schools have a supply room where materials are stored. In some instances, be-

² Adapted from *The New Teacher Comes to School*, by Glenn G. Eye and Willard R. Lane. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956.

cause of increased enrollment, these rooms have been converted into classrooms, leaving the school without sufficient storage space. In such cases materials are sometimes scattered about the school in closets, the janitor's supply room, or the principal's office. This lessens or eliminates the efficiency of these areas so that they cannot serve the function for which they were constructed; and it renders unlikely the probability that materials stored there will be frequently used in the classrooms. This is a problem that deserves the attention of school authorities wherever it exists.

In the Central Office of a School System

Materials are more apt to be used as needed by individual learners in a given school if they can be obtained easily even though they have been purchased through the school system's central office. It is important that teachers know what is available and how it may be secured from this source. Schools have been known to purchase from their own budgets materials which have already been bought at lower cost and are available to them from the central office. Sometimes teachers are so eager to individualize the use of materials to help each child make optimum progress that they buy instructional materials from their classroom budgets, or with their own money. If any of these items could have been checked out from a central office, such practice represents a waste of money and duplication of effort.

A simple, easy system should be devised for prompt distribution of materials. Teachers may be aware of what materials are available from the school system's central purchasing agency; however, if they have to wait a long time for them or if they have to order too far in advance, the teachers will tend to do without the materials, substitute what they have on hand, or use other means of obtaining materials.

The procedure employed in one county school system is representative of better practices now being used in school systems all over the country. The county has a central warehouse where materials are stored and from which they are distributed to the schools. Delivery trucks carry the material to the schools as it is requisitioned. The purchasing agent in charge of the warehouse meets regularly with the school principals, supervisors and the superintendent to discuss the problems of purchasing and distributing materials. He knows the cost of materials and the sources from which they may be obtained. Together they decide which items should be purchased by the purchasing agent and which should be purchased by individual schools. Red tape has been cut to a minimum so that the procedure for obtaining materials from the central warehouse is simple and is understood by everyone. Teachers

know what is available from this source, they know the procedure to follow in ordering the material, and they can depend on its being delivered promptly. This service gives teachers a feeling of security and encourages them to plan activities for and with boys and girls that will assist in their continuing development.

From Publishers and Supply Houses

Research is going on constantly and new materials are being produced that help teachers do a better job of meeting individual needs and abilities of learners. Teachers should make a sincere effort to keep abreast of materials that facilitate pupil progress. Helping the teacher to keep up with what is being produced is a task for which superintendents, supervisors, principals and teachers must share responsibility. Administrators can arrange opportunities for teachers to examine books and other instructional materials. This is often done through exhibits at teachers' meetings, conferences and workshops.

The problem of securing books and other reading materials to suit the range of abilities and interests represented in any school group is a constant challenge. A pupil in the fifth grade, for instance, who is reading on the third grade level is not usually interested in stories written for third graders. Many companies which publish reading material for elementary school children are publishing books at easier reading levels that have interest and appeal to older pupils. Practically all companies that publish junior high school English materials have tried to develop stories and selections at several reading levels yet with junior high school level of interest. Teachers should have the opportunity to examine many kinds of materials and to make selections based on their pupils' needs.

Teachers learn many things about materials and methods as they observe other classroom situations. They also learn by reading about the experiences and points of view of other people. In this modern age a professional library of books and periodicals is a necessity in every school system. It is practically impossible for a teacher to read everything that is published. That does not mean that he cannot or should not read widely. He does need the kind of help that his associates and a professional library can provide in adapting instructional materials to individual pupil needs and abilities.

Administrators and supervisors should do much exploration of literature that may be useful to teachers and should bring to their attention materials they should read. Teachers are usually appreciative when their principal or supervisor or another teacher brings them pertinent material for examination or use. Teachers are usually eager to read a

book, an article or a pamphlet which someone calls to their attention as being something in which they might be interested. Although this does not eliminate the teacher's responsibility to read professional publications and examine materials, it is one of the most helpful types of service a principal or supervisor can provide teachers.

Better Acquaintance with Materials and Learners

Teachers need to know the materials and the names of publications that can be secured, as well as the claims of publishers or producers for these materials. Teachers need also to know the materials themselves—their content, their difficulty level, their uses and their suitability for use with various individuals or groups of children.

Knowing Learning Materials

Teachers fail sometimes in guiding worth-while learning experiences for boys and girls because they do not know well the materials they are attempting to use. The only way for a teacher to know materials is to study and use them. As the teacher examines books, studies charts and maps, views films, or selects a volley ball instead of a softball, he should do it in relation to the purpose for which these materials are to be used. As he does this, he keeps in mind the differences between Johnny and Jimmie, Mary and Ann, and all the other children in his group. He must know his pupils, individually and as a group, so well that he can select for each one the material that he can use successfully and at the same time attain group goals. To do this takes time, work and planning. It takes deliberate intention.

A professor in a teacher education institution accompanied a group of college students to visit a high school English class. The English teacher had just brought in some new books from the library and was "selling" them, in a sense, to the pupils.

Several of her comments as she introduced the books to the class illustrate her approach:

"John, do you remember that book about big game hunting that you enjoyed last fall? Here is another by the same author."

"Last week I heard a radio commentator recommend a popular book on uses of atomic energy. I was pleased to find that book among these new additions to our library. I started it last night and couldn't put it down till I was through with it. If any of you want it now, here it is." (Two boys wanted it.)

After giving a brief introduction to the plot of a novel: "Who wants it first? All right, Jean. Remember that Bill wants it when you are through. Is that all right, Bill?"

"I guess you have exhausted all our library resources on airplanes and flight in general, Tom; but here's a new one. Why don't you look at it and see if you want to check it out?"

"Someone asked me recently where he could find more material for a social studies report on political parties in the United States. Who was that? You, Jim? Here's just the book. Do you still need it?"

"Alice, you told me once that there weren't enough adventure stories with girl characters. Here's a real 'thriller' about a girl. Do you still want it?"

When the class was over, the college students were amazed that every pupil in the English class had a book that he wanted and one from which he could benefit. This was an excellent demonstration of what happens when a teacher knows her pupils and knows materials. This teacher had brought books from the library that had a chance of being used by different pupils in the class. She guided her students but did not insist that a particular child read a given book. She was providing for each child's progress—based on his present abilities and interests but leading to new learnings—because she knew the books and because she knew her pupils.

Skill in Use of Particular Materials or Equipment

Skill in the use of many kinds of instructional materials or equipment improves teachers' competence in guiding pupil progress toward individual and group goals. The teacher cannot fit the materials very effectively to pupil needs if he is clumsy or inept in their use. A teacher may choose to use a filmstrip rather than a motion picture in a particular teaching situation because he has greater skill in teaching with a filmstrip. One may choose to use charts and graphs or an opaque projector, while another may feel more secure with a tape recorder. Security in the use of materials grows through familiarity with them. In choosing materials for use the teacher should not only ask himself, "Which materials do I know how to use?" but also "What skills do I need in order to use a variety of materials?" Skills can be improved; they can also be acquired. The teacher should be ever on the alert, not only to improve the skills he has, but also to acquire new skills in using more and better materials. Teachers learn from each other, and while they are sharing materials, they can also share their knowledge of how to use them.

Several elementary school teachers with their supervisor had spent a day observing in another school. In discussing this experience they were most enthusiastic about the way materials had been used in teaching arithmetic. One teacher said:

I observed in the third grade room. They had an arithmetic corner in

which there were a bulletin board for displays, a table for books and objects, and shelves for games and other aids for use in developing understandings. Children could spend their free time in examining and using this material. During the arithmetic period, the pupils helped the teacher decide which materials would be used.

Another teacher commented:

I observed an arithmetic class that was working on fractions. The more advanced group used a textbook. Another group was constructing objects to represent fractional parts while a third group used a fraction board which had been constructed by the class. There was no evidence of frustration on the part of the pupils. All of them were learning to understand fractions by using material suited to their level.

The supervisor pointed out that continuity of learning takes place when teachers are skilled in selecting and using a variety of materials.

Many school systems have programs of visitation and observation where teachers observe in other schools. Ideas that teachers get about how to use materials are one of the greatest values to be gained from observations.

Pupils' Readiness for Using Materials

Learning experiences which are to contribute to steady, continuous progress for children in school need to be planned and guided in terms of children's readiness for those experiences. This concept is closely related to the second principle stated on page 115: "Educational objectives should be formulated by translating the needs of the learner and the needs of society into desired outcomes of the learning process."

When children undertake a project or an assignment, they must be ready for it in at least two respects if they are to succeed. They must be ready with regard to the project itself; that is, they must see some value in it, some possibilities in it, some reason for doing it. They must also be ready with regard to the materials they are to use in carrying out the project. They must know what the material can do and how they can use it to make it serve its purposes.

A real estate developer is ready to undertake the construction of a building when he has a reason for erecting it and can see the value in it for himself and others. A group is ready to undertake a project when all its members see some value in it. It is essential that each participant accepts the project as being worth while and that each one sees some way he can contribute to the achievement of the objectives set. If 10 (or 30) children are going to help with the project or assignment, there should be something for each one to do to contribute to the completion of the job.

Readiness is enhanced when school projects involve real situations. A social studies class can talk about democracy to the extent that some of its members may develop a skeptical attitude toward it. If, however, the study of democracy is linked to some actual situation in or out of the community, it will have much more interest. Pupils will see more possibilities in such a study, and will be eager to try it.

When a contract is let for the construction of a building, the builder is not ready actually to do the work until he is also ready with respect to the tools he is going to use to build it. This implies a background of experience that has prepared him to use the equipment he chooses to use. It also implies familiarity with various types of equipment that will permit him to select the kinds that will do the job most efficiently.

In some schools and in many classrooms a great deal of time and effort is spent in guarding materials and keeping them out of the hands of children. Miel³ raises the question, "Is instructional material for children or just for the teacher?"

When children have a part in selecting materials and in caring for materials, they acquire competence in their use. It is well for the teacher to assume responsibility for the selection of materials, but children can do much of it under the leadership and guidance of the teacher. Witty⁴ has suggested that many times teachers assume too much responsibility for selecting materials. Pupils of all ages like to examine materials. As they work with materials, they learn to select that which is useful in a learning situation and they recognize the importance of properly caring for what they select.

When pupils are involved in planning their work, they have some incentive for searching for materials. With practice and proper guidance they learn to select those which will be most helpful in attaining their individual objectives and those of the group. When youngsters have opportunities to work with materials, they become acquainted with resources for learning. With the teacher's help, they select from the available materials those which will be useful in carrying out a project and those which will be appropriate for their own level of learning progress. They can help make such selections from books, films, magazines, construction materials, or tools and aids of other types.

The Library and the Materials Center

Continuity in learning is more likely to be enhanced when the school uses instructional materials whenever and wherever they are needed

³ Alice Miel. "When Resources Are for Children." *National Education Association Journal* 45: 401-403; October 1956.

⁴ Paul Witty. "Effective Utilization of Mass Media." *Childhood Education* 33: 104-108; November 1956.

without regard to grade classification. Such use is usually promoted when the school has a library or a materials center.

Occasionally a librarian can be found who apparently is more interested in keeping books neatly arranged in their proper places on the shelves than he is in helping boys and girls locate and use the materials they need. The professional librarian, on the other hand, provides many services for pupils and teachers other than taking care of books. All kinds of instructional materials are under his supervision and he conceives his mission as one of helping pupils and teachers to locate the material they need and to teach them how to use it. The materials center is a place for locating all kinds of instructional materials that are generally used in the school as well as much that have a possibility of being used.

It is no easy task for a school that has no librarian or materials person to maintain a materials center of the type described above. It is not impossible, however, and much can be accomplished through cooperative effort.

A materials center was set up and operated without the services of a librarian in a twelve-teacher elementary school. The center included many kinds of instructional materials: projectors, filmstrips, tape recorder, maps, globes, charts, record players, records, science kits, song books, art supplies, children's magazines, and many other resources. Each piece of equipment or material has its place and there is a simple procedure for checking it out. Teachers and pupils cooperate in keeping the center and making it serve the entire school.

The parents of the pupils were asked to donate back copies of such magazines as *Life* and *The National Geographic*. Hundreds of magazines were turned in and from these were taken stories, pictures and information on many topics of interest to elementary children. Work nights were set when parents and teachers clipped this material from the magazines and filed it according to the topic to which it was related. Many pictures were mounted and filed in the same way. All of it was cataloged and indexed so that it could be found, used and returned easily and efficiently.

Most books in this school are kept in the individual classroom libraries as a matter of convenience and practicability. Since there is no librarian, the teachers believed that best use can be made of books if they are located in the classrooms. A feeling of individual ownership of books does not exist, however, and the books are exchanged from room to room as they are needed.

Teachers know what is available in the school because they help to select and to process materials as they arrive. Teachers and pupils in this

school undoubtedly have access to a better range of materials than they would have if they took the attitude that "we can't have a materials center because we don't have a librarian."

If we were to divide the cost of a certain piece of instructional material or item of equipment by the number of ways it can be used, we would find that the more ways we use it, the less it costs for each use. A slide projector, for instance, is an excellent piece of equipment for showing slides and filmstrips. It also has several other very valuable uses not commonly associated with it. It can be used to make a tracing of a map, to represent the sun in showing the cause of night and day, for various demonstrations of the behavior of light rays in a dark room, and for a spotlight in a dramatic production.

By putting some soda and vinegar into a glass to form carbon dioxide and by lowering a lighted candle into the glass, one may demonstrate what happens to fire when it is surrounded by carbon dioxide. The materials used in this demonstration are instructional materials. Each taken separately has many other uses. They have other uses, too, when used together. For example, soda and vinegar may be used in a demonstration of chemical change. Let us suppose that the first experiment was done in the fourth grade and that the second one was done by the same group of children in a science class when they reached the tenth grade. Would the children at the tenth grade level object to using the materials in the second experiment on the grounds that they had "had" a soda and vinegar demonstration and knew all about it?

Textbooks, also, may be used for more than one purpose and at more than one level. Children in the sixth grade may use high school textbooks in working on a project in social studies. They may also use sixth grade textbooks in the same manner when they reach high school. Or a high school science class may use elementary school textbooks in a study of insects.

Using Community Resources

Children moving into a new school community have numerous adjustments to make. If teachers are to prevent unnecessary blocks to pupils' educational progress when changing from one school to another, they should be aware of children's out-of-school adjustments in the new community as well as their in-school adjustments. If teachers know community resources, they can do much to smooth the way for the child to whom all these factors are new and strange.

Even the child who has lived in the community all his life may not have a well-integrated, articulated understanding of his community in relation to his in-school learnings.

The need for concrete experiences and the need for getting as close to original sources of information as possible in order to provide continuity of learning both in school and out of school are so important that schools cannot afford to ignore the resources the community affords. The community resource may be a person whose occupation, travel or hobby has given him certain information not generally possessed by other people. Similarly, parks, playgrounds, museums, factories and other places of interest are also rich sources of learning for boys and girls of all ages.

Teachers need to know what opportunities for learning exist in their community. If a school does not have a file of such community resources (places where educational trips can be made or people who have some contribution to make to the educational program), a good way to start one would be by pooling the information available from all the teachers in the school. Parents and community organizations can contribute toward the development of such a file. The file on community resources should contain as much information as possible about these resources. Distances of places from the school, educational possibilities they offer, and names of teachers or others who know the manager or have had contact with him should be listed. Names of people, their addresses and telephone numbers and the area in which they are able to make contributions should also be listed. Some schools make community surveys in order to get such information. They find that many people previously unknown to the school have interesting occupations or hobbies and are willing to talk to groups of students or to work with them on projects along the lines of these interests.

The community resources file should be kept up to date by adding names and places as they come to the attention of the school and by discarding those that are no longer available.

Responsibility of Administrators and Supervisors

The need for cooperative planning and sharing of materials has been pointed out repeatedly in this chapter. Many teachers are willing to share ideas, share materials, and plan with other teachers. Others may be less willing; but usually all are free to plan and to share with one another. Freedom to work cooperatively in using available materials is not enough. Administrators and supervisors are in positions of leadership and have responsibility for promoting cooperative sharing. For example, classroom teachers do not ordinarily call faculty meetings. Consequently, unless the person with authority to do so makes it possible for teachers to organize for such a program and provides the leadership necessary for them to do so, it is not likely to be done.

School principals and supervisors are in a better position than anyone else to develop a cooperative and generous attitude about instructional materials among their teachers. They can help teachers to improve their skills in using materials and to develop new skills.

Administrators and supervisors who are interested in providing continuity in learning experiences for boys and girls should examine their policies and procedures with regard to the selection and use of instructional materials. The probability that children will learn well without materials that are suitable to their needs is small. There is little chance that they will experience smooth progression as they move through school unless intelligent attention is given to the selection and use of instructional materials.

Chapter Summary

An attempt has been made in this chapter to point up the importance of intelligent selection and use of instructional materials so as to promote continuity of learning for boys and girls throughout their school experience. To accomplish this, it is necessary to use with each child the instructional materials that will help him learn and progress toward educational goals that are suitable for him.

This implies that school people must recognize the differences among children and accept and utilize these in the true sense of the word. It also implies that teachers must know learning materials in order that these may be fitted to the readiness and maturity level of each learner.

These two implications place a great responsibility upon the teacher. He must appraise the pupil's needs and interests, his present capacities and his future goals as well as those the teacher holds for him. The teacher must make intelligent selections of materials in line with that appraisal. He must keep up with what is being produced in the field of study. He must know which of these materials are available in the particular school where he teaches, in the school system as a whole, and from publishers and other suppliers. He should also know how these materials can be obtained for use at the right time.

Once secured, the material will not meet the child's needs unless the teacher knows how to use it. In fact, the skill of the teacher in using certain material or equipment is one of the factors which determines what he selects for use. Teachers should be concerned not only with improving their present skills in using instructional materials, but also in developing new skills with a variety of teaching aids. Children can also participate in selecting, using, evaluating and caring for materials and can learn much in the process of so doing.

Teachers need to develop certain attitudes about the use of materials.

They should recognize that many of these resources can be used by more than one person and at more than one level of instruction. It can usually also be used for more than one purpose. Instructional materials—whether they be books or projection equipment or sand and stones for a science experiment—are not necessarily “graded” for use at a single grade level. Each should be used *when* and *where* it helps pupils make progress toward worthy goals, regardless of the grade level or the subject area being considered.

Inventories of available supplies and materials are invaluable aids in helping teachers to help children. The school library and the materials center, with trained personnel in charge, fulfill an important function in making materials serve the needs of the greatest number of pupils. The absence of such centers, however, does not prevent cooperative planning for sharing of materials by teachers.

The school community provides many resources for learning. It also serves as a source of many problems for children just moving into a new home or for those who have lived “in it” but have not become in the best sense “part of it.” The school has a duty to find out what the community resources are and to develop their use in providing opportunities for children to relate their in-school and out-of-school learnings into a well articulated whole.

School administrators and supervisors are in positions to give the leadership that is usually necessary to insure the most intelligent and efficient use of instructional materials for the best interests of all children and all teachers in a school system.

Approaching Continuity Through Regional Efforts

WITHIN THE past 12 years the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has sponsored two projects directly related to the problem of developing a continuous program of education through the first 12 years of school.¹ The first of these projects began as a cooperative study for the improvement of elementary schools in the Southern region. The second started as a study of possibilities of system-wide (as contrasted with individual school) accreditation and ended as a study of procedures for school improvement with particular emphasis on system-wide evaluation. This chapter describes these two projects as they relate to problems of articulation.

The Cooperative Elementary Program

Regional accrediting associations have concerned themselves primarily with the upper levels of the educational ladder—senior high schools, colleges, and universities. In local school systems where membership in the association may be prized highly, this emphasis has often resulted in significant differences between the elementary and junior high schools on one hand and the senior high schools on the other hand. Concern for maintaining the status of the senior high school in the association has sometimes led school authorities to neglect the elementary and junior high schools under their jurisdiction. This has sometimes resulted in more adequate facilities, better paid teachers, and better pupil-teacher ratios for the high schools at the expense of the elementary and junior high schools. Moreover, the evaluative techniques employed by the accrediting associations have, at times,

¹ This concern with better articulation of elementary, junior and senior high schools is unique to the Southern Association. When regional accrediting agencies have concerned themselves with problems of articulation, they have typically dealt with the transition from high school to college.

been inconsistent with the philosophy of education accepted by the elementary and junior high schools. Where these conditions have prevailed they have helped to damage articulation between the different school levels, so that children moving into the senior high schools often experience difficulty because of differences in teaching procedures and emphasis, in facilities and curriculum organization.

Officials of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have been concerned about this problem for some time. Growing out of this concern, the association, in 1946, launched a three year study for the improvement of elementary schools in the Southern region.² As a result of this study the association organized a Cooperative Program in Elementary Education as a continuing project. The project is sponsored by the association's Commission on Research and Service. Major planning responsibility rests with the Central Coordinating Committee of the Southern Association's Cooperative Program in Elementary Education which includes the chairman of each state committee for the Elementary Program. A full time staff member is employed for regionwide promotion and coordination activities among the cooperating elementary schools. Some indication of interest in and of the success of the project is shown by the fact that 3615 elementary schools affiliated officially as members during the school year 1955-56. This number has increased each year.

From the beginning this project centered attention on school improvement rather than on meeting standards for accreditation.³ Schools, either as individual units or as all elementary schools in a system, have affiliated themselves with the project on the basis of their desire to participate with other schools in cooperative efforts to improve. Cooperative activities have included workshops and special study committees organized to attack a variety of problems common to elementary schools in the region. Recommendations by these workshops and committees have guided schools in resolving some of these problems.

Several publications have come from the project. Among the more significant of these are: *Evaluating the Elementary School* (comparable to the *Evaluative Criteria* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards) and *Looking at Your School*, a simplified version of the former.⁴ These publications have been used extensively by schools in

² *Southern Association Quarterly* 11: 198; February 1947.

³ At present the Central Coordinating Committee of the Elementary Program is considering accreditation of elementary schools.

⁴ Publications of the project are distributed by the office of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 316 Peachtree Street, N. E., Atlanta, Georgia.

studying their programs, clarifying their basic philosophy, identifying significant problems, and planning ways to resolve these problems.

Evaluating the Elementary School has been used in a number of cases as an instrument to promote school improvement from Grades 1 through 12. In other cases some or all of the elementary schools of a system have used the *Evaluative Criteria* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, with adaptations in both instruments to assure consistency of approach on the two levels. Pertinent to the problem of developing a continuous program for pupils, the principal of one school in which the elementary study was applied in Grades 1 through 12, had this to say:

Last week I asked each teacher to jot down some of the values he thought resulted or would result. . . . Some felt there is a better understanding of how boys and girls grow at all levels. Some said they have a keener awareness of the problems at each level and that they have a more sympathetic understanding of each other's problems. . . . Another value which resulted is that the idea has been erased from teachers' minds that there must be a gap between the elementary and the high school.⁵

Another avenue through which the Cooperative Elementary Program has touched the problems of articulation is through its part in the annual meetings of the Southern Association. The fact that elementary school principals and teachers have been encouraged to attend the annual meetings has called the attention of secondary school participants to elementary schools and their problems. It has also helped the elementary school personnel to identify themselves with the association's program.

Each year recently the elementary and secondary school groups within the Southern Association have held a joint program meeting at which the topic for consideration has been one of mutual interest. In 1954 the topic was, "Issues Concerning Articulation Between Elementary and Secondary Schools." Partly because of the interest expressed in that subject by both elementary and secondary school people in the region, the Central Coordinating Council of the Cooperative Elementary Program proposed in 1955 that the succeeding joint sessions of the two groups at the annual meetings should follow through with careful consideration of specific curricular areas through Grades 1-12. Since this suggestion met with the approval of the secondary school program committee, the elementary group secured a

⁵ J. P. Causey. "Using the Elementary Evaluative Criteria in a 12-grade School." *Proceedings of the Fifty-Fifth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*. Atlanta, Ga.: the Association, December 1950. p. 180.

speaker in 1955 to develop the place of the teaching of reading throughout the 12-year program. In 1956 the same group set up a program considering the teaching of mathematics throughout the 12-year program. In each of these cases, a main address by a national authority has been followed by discussion groups examining various aspects of the subject. These discussion groups have been well attended by both elementary and secondary school people and have been well received.

In summary, the chief contributions of the Cooperative Program in Elementary Education toward promoting better articulation between elementary and secondary schools in the South seem to be:

1. Encouragement of self-evaluation in elementary schools and by the whole faculty in 12-year schools in the region served by the Southern Association
2. Some leadership in promoting joint consideration by elementary and secondary school people of common concerns with respect to articulation as a mutual problem
3. Stimulation of thinking about continuity of pupil experiences in the various curricular areas such as reading or mathematics.

System-wide Evaluation and Membership

As a result of the success of the Elementary School Program as well as other considerations, the association was faced with problems concerned with its appropriate relationship to member schools. The schools affiliated with the Cooperative Elementary School Program were originally concerned primarily with school improvement and were not too much interested in accreditation even if this had been possible for them. Junior high schools in the region were not affiliated with the association but were interested in gaining recognition on some basis so that they could have the association's support in efforts toward improvement. Some felt that the accreditation function of the Secondary Commission with senior high schools had become less important because of the fact that the various state departments of education were performing this function more effectively than they had done previously. This group was interested in finding more effective ways of promoting school improvement than had been found in accreditation of individual schools. To deal with these problems and concerns the association launched at its annual meeting in 1952 a "... study of alternative plans of accreditation with particular attention to the possibilities of school system accreditation."⁶ This study was made under supervision of the association's Commission on Research and Service.

⁶ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Proceedings of the Fifty-sixth Annual Meeting*. Atlanta, Ga.: the Association, Dec. 1951. p. 150.

Because of the nature of the problems with which the committee had to deal, the fact that other agencies of the association were studying accreditation procedures, and a growing belief that procedures other than accreditation might better serve the purposes of the association, the name of the committee carrying on this study was changed in 1954 to "The Committee on the Study of Procedures of School Improvement." At that same time its scope was broadened and:

The Committee re-stated its purpose as follows: "It is the purpose of the Committee to make an examination of school systems' plans or procedures for accomplishing improvement of their educational programs with a view to developing plans for such examination and their incorporation in a program of evaluation and/or accreditation."⁷

It should be pointed out here, perhaps, that since publication of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, the Secondary Commission of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has utilized the evaluative techniques of the *Criteria* extensively as a means to promoting improvement in member schools. Hence, with the new interest in the elementary schools, the search for appropriate ways to incorporate elementary schools in the association's program of activities, and the growing belief that the association should concentrate its efforts on school improvement, it was a natural step for the committee charged with finding ways to achieve the foregoing purposes to turn to the evaluative process as a possible technique.

Significant to the problem of articulation, the committee concerned itself with evaluating school systems' plans and procedures for school improvement rather than with the plans of individual schools. This tended to prevent the development of sharp differences between schools within a system, and in fact focused attention on such differences as may have existed as problems to be faced in the system's plans for improvement.

The preliminary activities of the committee involved a survey of state accreditation patterns and exploratory studies of school improvement in one county system in Georgia and one in Kentucky. Based upon experiences in these preliminary studies and other considerations available to the committee, a tentative "Guide for System-wide Evaluation for School Improvement" was prepared. This tentative guide was used on a trial basis in Grades 1-12 of a public school system in Tennessee; a parochial school system in Mississippi; a public school system in Florida; and a county school system in Alabama. On the basis of ex-

⁷ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Proceedings of the Sixtieth Annual Meeting*. Atlanta, Ga.: the Association, December 1955. p. 167.

periences gained through the use of the tentative guide in these situations, procedures for the system-wide evaluations were improved and the guide revised accordingly. Moreover, some tentative conclusions were reached with respect to possible values and the feasibility of system-wide evaluation as a technique for promoting school improvement.

Procedures in System-wide Evaluation

In the school systems participating in this project all the professional personnel, including administrators, supervisors and teachers, as well as representatives of school patrons have been involved in the evaluative process. Typically the project, on the local level, has been carried out under the direction of a coordinating committee composed of representative principals, supervisors, teachers, board members and citizens, all working with a consultant representing the Southern Association Committee on the Study of School Improvement.

Under the leadership of this committee the school personnel of the system has made a system-wide self-study and evaluation of "efforts" under way in the system toward school improvement. For further study, the "efforts" toward improvement identified in this phase of the project have been grouped into the broad categories to which they were related. Typically the "efforts" have been grouped into the following categories:

1. Efforts having to do with the *purposes* of the school system
2. Efforts having to do with the *program* for pupils
3. Efforts having to do with providing *personnel*
4. Efforts having to do with providing *facilities*
5. Efforts having to do with *school-community* cooperation
6. Efforts having to do with *coordination* of effort through administrative policies, organization, and procedures.⁸

The second phase of the project in the local school system has included a systematic study and/or review of the self-evaluation by a joint study committee extending over a period of three to four days. This joint committee for the self-study has included the local coordination committee, plus a visiting group of representatives of the state department of education, the elementary and secondary state committees of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and local or nearby teacher education institutions. The consultant for the project has served as chairman of the joint study committee. Through careful study of the data presented in the self-evaluation report, conferences

⁸ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Committee on Procedures for School Improvement. *A Guide for System-wide Evaluation for School Improvement*. Atlanta, Ga.: the Association, June 1955. p. 4.

with various school personnel, and observation of the schools in operation, the joint committee has then identified points of strength and weakness in the system's efforts toward improvement. In its formal report the committee has stated what it observed and made suggestions for next steps which seemed to be appropriate.

The third phase of the project in the local system is expected to consist of "Continued work on the problems by the school system with periodic evaluation and report(s) of progress."⁹

Benefits Through System-wide School Evaluation

Considerable value apparently results through involving all school personnel in a given school system in a systematic study of problems related to: purposes of the system; the program for pupils; ways and means of providing and improving personnel; providing and utilizing facilities; school and community cooperation; and administrative policies, organization and procedures. As pointed out earlier in this book, a recognition of common purposes and an understanding of the program for pupils by all professional personnel in a school system are essential if pupils are to experience consistency of treatment and a smooth transition from school to school or grade to grade in the system. Logically, such common understandings will grow from cooperative work on the problems involved by the people concerned. Moreover, comparable personnel and facilities are more likely to be provided in all schools within a given system when this is a common concern throughout the system. Where all schools are working at the problem of improving school-community relationships, more effective results in terms of a continuous program of education can be expected than in situations where some schools are concerned with this matter and others are not.

Experiences in school systems in which the procedures for system-wide evaluation have been tried indicate that the values cited above have been realized in the process. For instance, in summarizing the results of the project in a local district school system, one superintendent said:

1. It (the project) offered the unique opportunity to involve the community in this business of improving schools.
2. Even in the school system where there has existed a very highly organized in-service education program for the past 12 years, devoting some 20 days per school year to in-service activities, it suggests many problems

⁹Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Proceedings of the Sixtieth Annual Meeting*. Atlanta, Ga.: the Association, December 1955. p. 170.

that teachers should concern themselves with in studying the program. It is a vehicle for identifying problems which need further study. It reveals needs that are not listed in a questionnaire type of approach where individual staff members are asked to list their needs.

3. This kind of approach to evaluation helps build unity among the professional staff as well as in the community. It helps teachers on one particular level understand better the problems of teachers on higher or lower levels. The existence of common problems (is) more readily identified.¹⁰

The assistant superintendent of a parochial school system, in summarizing the experience of the schools of the Diocese, said:

This technique of System-wide Evaluation for School Improvement used by these parochial schools has proven, to date, to be the best device used to integrate the elementary, junior high, and senior high schools for total school improvement.¹¹

Experiences with the project in a county school system indicate that:

1. System-wide evaluation reveals needs that are not always evident in studying individual schools.

2. The emphasis upon the total program of a school system involved in system-wide evaluation helps avoid the tendency to solve the problems of one segment of the system at the expense of other segments; thus it helps provide a unified approach to the task of improving instruction.

3. System-wide evaluation helps local school people to understand the functions of various personnel and the problems which each is facing. The existence of common problems and the need for a system of priorities are seen more clearly as a result of joint study.

4. The needs which were identified in system-wide evaluation served to alert the school personnel to problems not previously recognized. . . .

5. System-wide evaluation provides a vehicle for involving lay people, thus promoting a closer community-school relationship.¹²

It appears evident from the experiences of those involved in these three different school systems that system-wide evaluation for school improvement is a technique which can result in better articulation within schools and among schools within the system. Those who have participated in such evaluation believe that it has these results:

1. It develops a sense of unity of purpose among teachers in the system.

2. It develops an understanding of the program of the school system at all levels among the professional personnel in the system.

¹⁰ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Proceedings of Sixtieth Annual Meeting*. Atlanta, Ga.: the Association, December 1955. p. 172.

¹¹ *Ibid.* p. 173.

¹² *Ibid.* p. 169-70.

3. It develops a recognition of common problems among professional personnel in the system.
4. It results in better articulation of various school units in the system (elementary, junior high, senior high schools).
5. It develops better school-community cooperation throughout the system.

All of these are necessary factors in developing a continuous, consistent and meaningful program of education for children and youth.

Chapter Summary

When regional accrediting associations have concerned themselves with problems of articulation, they have typically focused their attention on the point of transition from high school to college. This chapter reviews two organized efforts of a regional association to contribute to better articulation of elementary and secondary schools. Both of these efforts have been sponsored by the association's Commission on Research and Service.

One of the projects described in this chapter is the Cooperative Elementary Program, which has concentrated on improvement of elementary schools in the Southern region. Its contributions to better articulation have been made through: (a) publishing guides for self-evaluation and encouraging their use by faculties in elementary schools and in 12-year schools; (b) providing leadership for joint consideration of articulation problems by elementary and secondary school people; and (c) stimulating discussion and thinking on continuity of pupil learning experiences in various curricular areas such as reading and mathematics.

The second project is a study of system-wide evaluation, which has been tried out experimentally in school systems of varying types. A committee has studied the reactions of persons involved in such evaluations and has reported generally favorable findings as to the approaches used. Comments from school leaders in situations where system-wide evaluation has been used indicate that it has resulted in: (a) initiating and furthering efforts for school improvement and (b) improving unity of purpose and procedures throughout the school system, from level to level and school to school. This project is still in the study stage.

Part Four

The End and the Beginning

Now understand me well: It is provided in the
essence of things that from any fruition of success,
no matter what, shall come forth something to make
a greater struggle necessary.

—Walt Whitman

Looking Toward Improved Continuity

THIS YEARBOOK represents an "exploratory operation." Its purpose throughout is to explore the subject of school articulation with emphasis upon the building of improved continuity in the learning experiences of boys and girls as they progress from the kindergarten or first grade through the senior high school.

Exploration and Discovery

Geographically speaking, a land or region or body of water is first discovered, then explored. The exploration, however, often leads to new discoveries. Which precedes the other is a question of the phase of the total process being considered. So it is with our study of articulation. We have tried to find new areas needing consideration; we have tried to explore more fully those whose existence we recognized. In our exploration of articulation ideas and problems and practices, we have made some new discoveries and rediscovered some items we may have forgotten or ignored.

Problems of Articulation Do Exist

In Part One of this book, called "Through Children's Eyes," an effort was made to explore the situations in which children in school recognize that their learning progress has been helped or hindered in significant ways. Which of the findings from that study represent new discoveries depends upon the reader who is giving his reactions. The important point is that ample evidence is presented to support the existence of real articulation problems encountered by school children—problems which arise because their elders have been guilty of failing to do what should have been done and equally guilty of having done many things which should not have been done. Evidence of constructive behavior on the part of adults is also apparent. Both the positive and

negative findings of Part One are most helpful in indicating what the problems are and suggesting clues to improvements which can be made in helping children make steady progress in school learnings.

The chapter titles of Part One indicate the types of findings derived from the study of reports submitted by 3000 school children. Chapter 1, "Exploring Children's Views," gives a brief account of the conduct of the study and previews the succeeding chapters. Chapter 2, "When and Where Do School Children Notice Continuity?" summarizes data concerning the types of school situations in which the children noted specific helps or hindrances to their educational progress; these situations are also studied in relation to the school level of the children at the time they occurred. Chapter 3, "How Do Other People Influence Continuity for Children?" points up the findings which indicate the significance of human relations in articulation situations. Chapter 4, "How Do Children React to Continuity Situations?" summarizes the positive and negative types of reactions expressed by children to their reported experiences. Chapter 5, "What Do Children See as the Causes of Their Reactions?" may be in some respects the most significant of all these chapters because of its emphasis on *why* children reacted as they did to their experiences.

Most of the statistical findings in Chapters 2-5 are presented in graphic form, supplemented by two tables in Chapter 5 and a series of more detailed tables in Appendix B. The research findings which seemed to be of particular significance as a basis for further study of articulation problems are summarized at the ends of the chapters. The graphs, tables and accompanying discussion all support the view that school children face a wide variety of real problems of articulation in our schools.

Foundations for Solving Articulation Problems

Progress toward improved continuity for children as they go from one learning experience to another may be aided from time to time by scattered and random attention to the matter. Some sensitive teacher, principal or other adult may "play by ear" as it were in seeking to remove barriers to progress or to prevent such barriers being built. Or a procedure developed for an entirely different reason may incidentally aid articulation. For example, in an attempt to improve the school's relations with the community, the teachers may begin to make home visits; while making such a visit, a teacher may learn facts about a pupil which give him a clue to the child's poor adjustment to a school situation.

Such more or less indirect approaches are not adequate to deal with

the multiplicity and complexity of existing articulation problems. Before optimum progress can be made in dealing with these problems, they must be faced directly. Further, school people need to explore rather fully some of the fundamental considerations on which desirable continuity of learning rests. The framework of such a foundation is suggested in Part Two of this yearbook, entitled "Firm Foundations for Continuity."

Chapter 6, "Exploring Foundations for Continuity," previews three areas of consideration and presents the yearbook committee's position that extensive and sound improvements of school articulation must rest on a sound framework of basic ideas about school children and about education. The next three chapters deal with selected basic principles in the areas suggested by the chapter titles: Chapter 7, "Considering Implications of Child Growth, Development and Learning"; Chapter 8, "Considering Educational Objectives"; and Chapter 9, "Considering Curriculum Content."

Selected Attempts To Find Solutions to Articulation Problems

"Continuity in Practice" is the title of Part Three of the yearbook. This section explores a selected group of current school practices designed to help children to experience a desirable degree and type of continuity in school learnings. The coverage of practices is by no means complete, but an attempt has been made to include a variety of illustrations. Chapter 10, "Exploring Current Practices," discusses the purpose of including these accounts of practice and also points out some of their limitations.

Chapters 11, 12 and 13 deal with attempts to improve articulation for children in three particular types of situations as indicated by chapter titles: Chapter 11, "Helping Children Adjust to a New School Community"; Chapter 12, "Orienting Children and Youth to New School Levels"; and Chapter 13, "Promoting Steady Progress Between Grades and Within Grades."

The last three chapters of Part Three concentrate on selected avenues of approach to articulation problems, namely: by faculty study, by better selection and use of instructional materials, and through the efforts of a regional accrediting association. These are of course not the only avenues of approach, but do suggest considerable variety among themselves. Chapter 14 describes one way of "Approaching Continuity Through Understanding the Learner." Chapter 15 deals with "Approaching Continuity Through Instructional Materials." Chapter 16, concluding Part Three, examines examples of "Approaching Continuity Through Regional Efforts."

Part Three does not provide anyone with "*the answers*" to problems of school articulation. It does give some information on procedures which have been tried and have been met with varying degrees of success.

No Master Plan for Articulation

It would be most unwise to attempt to develop at this time a "master plan" or even a tentative "blueprint" of the ways and means by which any school system (or schools in general) should seek to achieve the ideal situation for well-articulated learning for children in school. At least three reasons support this position.

1. *Too little is known about problems of articulation and about ways of improving continuity in learning experiences.*

Our present state of knowledge about articulation is too limited to form a good basis for dictating or even recommending definite solutions to the problems. For one thing, we need to know much more about the problem of articulation itself, or the galaxy of separate problems which children face because their experiences are "out of joint." Also, we need to study the facts about articulation as they are gathered; we need to ponder them well and think them through very carefully before hurrying to final answers. Finally, we need to take time to experiment with possible solutions as they occur to us; we need to test various procedures and practices before arriving at specific choices as to ways and means.

2. *No master plan can possibly fit all situations.*

Basic principles of child development, learning, educational objectives, and curriculum development have been proposed in Part Two of this book. These principles have been recommended as useful in constructing a framework upon which to build plans for better continuity among children's school experiences. Other similar principles and basic ideas may be added to those which have been suggested. Basic as these ideas may be, they are the foundation or the framework upon which or within which individual plans must be built. A procedural design for promoting good articulation in any particular school or school system, for any particular child or group of children, within any special situation or combination of circumstances *must* of necessity be unique in some respects for those particular schools or children or situations. No plan developed in terms of definite practices or organization to follow can fit all cases. Each plan for improved articulation must be "custom made" to fit the people and circumstances involved. No matter how much we come to know about articulation problems, their causes and their cures, we shall probably never find either a "master key" or a "master plan."

3. *Each plan for improving school articulation will fit best if it is designed by those who are to use it.*

For the "custom made" plans suggested above, school people cannot expect to send someone else for a "fitting." Those who are to "wear" the plan must themselves make the design. The local school faculty should participate in planning aids to continuity in pupil learning in their school or school system. When the articulation problems concern schools in different communities, there should be cooperative planning which includes and provides for all concerned at that level. Insofar as possible, it is not too much to hope that the children themselves, their parents and their teachers might join in clarifying the problems of articulation, getting at their causes, and planning ways to improve the total situation. No "master plan" would allow for such participation.

Plans for Action

"No master plan" does not mean there are to be no plans for action on articulation problems. Action is needed on several fronts, and plans for such action are essential.

Further Research on Articulation

Much more research is needed on problems of continuity in children's learning experiences in school. Part One of this yearbook and the first section of the annotated bibliography in Chapter 18 indicate some research which is now available; but actually research on articulation problems from the viewpoint of children's development and learning is rather limited at present.

Further definition of continuity problems: Part One presents an exploratory study of children's views on factors which helped or hindered their educational progress. Similar explorations should be made of the views of teachers, parents and other persons who have an opportunity to observe and to participate in the students' learning activities. Actually, one such exploratory study has been started by the committee responsible for this yearbook. Members of this committee gathered opinions of teachers about school articulation problems and procedures. The data gathered from 469 teachers and school supervisory personnel are in process of being analyzed and compared with the study of children's ideas on the subject.

Research on the views of children and adults is just a beginning. From the findings of such studies, however, interested persons can develop a large number of questions for further investigation. For instance, findings of the study of 3000 students' reports (in Part One) could be used as the basis of an objective instrument which could be

submitted to more extensive and more adequately selected samplings of students, thus setting up the possibility of verifying or refuting the findings of the present study. Further, data can be gathered concerning actual records of events or situations rather than depending on children's subjective recollections or secondhand reports of what happened when children faced articulation problems. Any one of a number of aspects of the over-all problem merits intensive study, for example, the problems faced by children who transfer from one school community to another.

One problem area not dealt with in the present book, except through references in the bibliography (Chapter 18), is that of children who have so much difficulty that they drop out of school. The "drop-outs" have not only experienced hindrance to educational progress; they have been eliminated from the possibility of further progress so far as school is concerned. Numerous studies of drop-outs have been made; others might well be done with emphasis on relation of dropping out of school to the basic considerations developed in Part Two of this book.

Obviously, more information is needed about the factors which seem to be associated with difficulties of articulation. These factors may be causes of inarticulation; or they may not be causal. In any event, they need to be interpreted in terms of their relationship to the problem.

Evaluation of present practices: Some current attempts are being made to improve articulation for school children; these attempts need to be evaluated. This involves much careful research. It is not enough to work out an orientation program for school entrants or a comprehensive primary school for a graded school with separate primary grades. No matter how well planned they are in terms of seeking means of improving articulation for the children involved, these plans and procedures need to be continuously evaluated, modified in the light of the evaluation, and then re-evaluated.

New proposals for aiding continuity of learning need to be tried out in practice so they can be evaluated. This does not rule out "mental pre-evaluation" which disposes of some ideas before they are actually tried out; careful examination of the idea may turn up weaknesses so obvious that to put the idea into operation would be unnecessary and unwise.

Evaluation of present practice needs to include some practices which were not set up particularly for purposes of aiding articulation. It should also include attention to articulation matters in over-all school evaluations, even though the original evaluation was not planned to include attention to articulation. For example, a school faculty may be in the process of evaluating a school or school system in connection with hav-

ing the school accredited by a state department of education. In such a case, even though the evaluative instruments being used did not deal directly with articulation matters, the group might well decide to include some consideration of such factors.

Individual and Group Study of Articulation

In addition to research studies, many teachers, administrators and parents need to study material which is already available. The subjects of study may be the children in school, the school curriculum, educational objectives, or printed materials.

Study of development of children in the school: Chapter 14 describes a study program for a professional group. It represents one type of child study procedure. In other situations the study would be organized and conducted differently; but the main purpose of the study could be similar—to learn more about the children in a class or grade or school in order that teachers and administrators might learn better how to promote steady educational progress for those children. Chapter 7 of this book might well serve as a basic reference to help teachers direct their attention to important considerations about how children grow, develop and learn. In any situation, the adults are going to have to know the pupils rather well if they are to do the best job possible of providing well-articulated learning experiences.

Study of educational objectives: The suggestion here is not for a formalized statement of educational objectives, to be pulled out of other written sources and “adopted” verbally by a school faculty. “Study of educational objectives” here means careful consideration of the purposes of the school. What is education all about? What do we want to do for these children and youth while they are in school? Chapter 8 provides a basic reference for such a study. It does not tell any group what objectives they should accept; it does suggest basic principles for dealing with questions they should answer for themselves. This kind of study is very important; too many articulation difficulties arise because teachers or others require of children and youth impossible tasks which do not contribute to the basic purposes for which those pupils are in school.

Study of curriculum: Curriculum study which is to result in improved continuity of children’s learning in school must be done in relation to its appropriateness for the learners and its contribution to attainment of educational objectives. It is therefore a logical outgrowth of the two preceding types of study. Actually, all three subjects of study may be pursued simultaneously. Whether study of child development, learning, objectives and curriculum is sequential or simultaneous is not too

important; the essential is that relationships must be developed among the various subjects. Too often, perhaps, people attempt to study curriculum all by itself. This leads nowhere or else leads astray. Chapter 9 of Part Two should be helpful in curriculum study which is expected to lead to improved articulation.

Printed sources of study helps: Chapter 18, which follows this one immediately, is an annotated bibliography of references related to articulation problems and practices. No matter what type of study in articulation is being made, there should be something in this bibliography which can be of help to the serious student of the problem. Though not exhaustive, it suggests some starting points.

Individual study of articulation: By implication, the various "studies" suggested above may seem to involve whole faculties or other interested groups of adults. Children might also be involved. Sound principles of group process will apply here as in any other group endeavor.

Individual study must not be neglected. One interested person cannot reform a school system by himself; but that is no excuse for individuals to bypass articulation problems. A large proportion of children's barriers to learning progress appears within the framework of the individual teacher's relationships with a class or an individual pupil. Many such barriers can be removed (or prevented from occurring) by that one teacher's study of the situation, study of the child or children, study of his own teaching objectives, study of his own teaching methods, study of his own concepts of the curriculum to be developed with children. Such a simple technique as taking time to talk with individual students about their past and present experiences and their future goals may be a real eye-opener to the teacher at the same time that it partly solves the student's problem as he discovers the teacher's interest in his concerns.

Obvious as it may seem, an individual teacher often forgets that it is the study by individual faculty members which undergirds any group study. Here again the individual has a responsibility for improvements in learning continuity in general.

Planning for Progress Toward Better Articulation

Further research studies of articulation problems will be made. Individuals and groups of interested persons will study the problem in terms of their own communities and the needs of their own pupils. Some of them will go on from active study to active implementation of what they learn through study. Accordingly, plans must be made not only for study but also for putting the results of study into practice. This must be done all the way from the individual teacher's relations

to the individual pupil, on up through the local schools to the state, regional and national levels of operation.

Local planning: Fundamental improvements in education, no matter where they start, never really become effective until they reach the individual school unit. Why is this true? Simply because that is where the learners are. For them the whole educational structure exists. Schools become better articulated only as the children in those schools achieve desirable types and degrees of continuity among their learning experiences. Accordingly, improvements must occur locally. The more people who can participate constructively in the planning for local improvements, the better is the chance that the plans will work out well in practice. Chapters 11-15 all concentrate on local efforts to improve continuity in children's learning.

State and regional planning: The necessity for local planning and action does not rule out responsibility at the state or regional level. Chapter 16 of this book suggests the possibility of regional approaches to some problems of articulation between elementary and secondary schools. State groups can also do much to initiate and support plans for improved continuity. For example, state textbook committees which include representatives from various school levels can have much to do with providing appropriate instructional materials, to be used at the local level in such a way as to promote better articulation. Leadership of state departments of education can also do much to encourage curriculum study of a type which will lead to improved understandings of a child's development through curricular experiences from the kindergarten through high school.

National planning: The present yearbook is an example of an effort by a national professional organization to do something constructive about articulation problems. The bibliography which follows includes several titles by this and other national groups which have a direct bearing on continuity of school learning. Groups with nationwide representation have a particular role to play in calling attention to problems, supplying materials to aid study, and in mobilizing efforts which require wider cooperation, geographically speaking. A case in point is the matter of difficulties experienced by children in moving from one school community to another. The local school from which a child goes and the local school to which he comes must each participate if his transition is to be most effectively handled; national recognition of the seriousness of the problems of moving (from the child's viewpoint) should do much to coordinate the efforts of the sending and the receiving schools. Of course, the same holds true within a state or region as within the whole country. Chapter 11 is devoted particularly to

the problems of the transfer pupil; national professional organizations would do well to plan more definitely to provide specific help on those problems.

Responsibility of teacher education institutions: No institution which prepares teachers for their professional duties can assume to have given adequate preprofessional guidance if it ignores the problems of articulation faced by children. Some consideration of what learning continuity is and what it does (as well as consideration of the results of lack of continuity) should certainly be part of any teacher education curriculum. If elementary and secondary school teachers have a chance to learn about these matters in their professional studies, many problems might be avoided.

Further, many inarticulations in schools seem to result clearly from a lack of understanding on the part of teachers at one level of what the teachers at another level are seeking to accomplish. This situation gives rise to some questions which teacher education institutions should answer: How much of the essential professional curriculum for elementary school teachers should be different from that for secondary school teachers? Wherein should teachers of different school levels be similarly educated? When the curriculum of one group of teachers is different from that of another group, why is it different? When curricula are the same, why are they the same? How much provision is made to teach prospective elementary teachers to understand the secondary school to which their prospective pupils will go? How much effort is made to teach prospective secondary teachers to understand the program of the elementary schools from which their prospective pupils come?

The answering of these questions in satisfactory fashion may involve in many cases some curriculum revisions which are long overdue. The answers in different institutions may well vary but they should be arrived at by careful and honest consideration of basic considerations such as those provided in Part Two of this book. Preprofessional education is expected to meet many demands. Fortunately, meeting this demand for consideration of learning continuity is not really an "extra" one; it is so interwoven with the whole educational process that attention to it is bound to improve understanding in other areas. Preprofessional study of articulation can by no means supplant or make unnecessary continued study by teachers in the field; but it can prevent many barriers to progress from being erected.

Begin Where You Are

Whoever you are, wherever you work in the education of boys and girls, begin where you are to do your share in helping them to make

steadier, more continuous progress toward educational goals which you and they recognize as good for them and good for the society in which they live. It matters little whether you are a classroom teacher, a principal, a superintendent, an instructional supervisor, an attendance worker, a high school counselor, an official in a state department of education, or a college professor of education. You have a responsibility to appraise the situation in which you work and the situations in which boys and girls go to school. You have a responsibility to study—in all the ways suggested above and others of your own devising. Some of you need to do research to clarify the problems of articulation and to evaluate present practices. You have a responsibility to cooperate with other school people and with parents in doing what you know to do to promote better continuity of learning experience for children in school. Perhaps what you do will be far from perfect; but no one asks that you start with perfection. The significant question is this: Are you doing something better than you have been doing in the past? Have you removed *some* of the insuperable barriers and unnecessary interruptions to pupil progress? Do you understand the problems of articulation better than you formerly did? What are you doing to prove that you do understand?

Except for the bibliography and appendix, this is "The End" of this book. Is it "The Beginning" of new or renewed efforts on your part to do something constructive to improve the continuity of learning experience for school children and youth?

A Bibliography on Articulation

THE REFERENCES presented in this chapter follow the organizational pattern of the yearbook. The first section is devoted to research studies relating to articulation; the second section is concerned with materials treating child growth, development, objectives, curriculum and learning; and the third section presents selected references bearing upon current and recent practices that relate to articulation.

It will be noted that the first section, on research, is rather limited. In surveying the literature it was found that a number of studies have been done recently, but many of them had to do with administrative techniques rather than placing emphasis on continuity of progress from the learner's point of view. While some of the studies presented in this first section are not in keeping with the spirit of the yearbook, they illustrate typical studies.

With the exception of a very few of the books presented in this bibliography, all of the material is of recent date. Indeed, in the case of the periodic literature cited, no article antedates 1951 and most of the articles were published in more recent years.

The references include only published materials. No attempt was made to include theses, dissertations or unpublished manuscripts.

Research Studies and Articulation

ALLEN, CHARLES M. "What Have Our Drop-outs Learned?" *Educational Leadership* 10: 347-50; March 1953.

Findings of this study indicate that a contributing factor to early school leaving from high schools is related to lack of smooth progress in elementary schools as well as poor adjustment to high school. School experiences taught the children to consider themselves as "failures."

AYERS, LEONARD P. *Laggards in Our Schools*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1909.

This reference is chiefly historical in interest but gives a perspective from which the reader may view progress in achieving articulation and smooth progress.

CANTONI, LOUIS J. "Stay-ins Get Better Jobs." *Personnel and Guidance Journal* 33: 531-33; May 1955.

Findings indicate that children who stay in school longer attain higher vocational levels, and thus pose a challenge to educators to improve school articulation so as to exert maximum holding power.

COOK, EDWARD. "How IQ Figures in the Drop-out Problem." *School Executive* 74: 56-57; September 1954.

This article indicates that drop-outs have, in the main, lower IQ's than do the youngsters who remain to graduate. It suggests programs that will make for greater strength in holding slower learners in school.

EVANS, DEAN N. "How to Conduct a High School Drop-out Study." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, February 1954. p. 33-41.

Evans outlines procedures for conducting studies of drop-outs. Of particular use is the reproduction of questionnaires and evaluating instruments.

LANDY, EDWARD. "Selected Follow-Up as an Aid to Articulation." *Occupations* 30: 427-29; March 1952.

Of chief importance in this article are counselor and pupil interview blanks that can be used to gather information which might be helpful in making for smooth transition between junior and senior high schools.

ROBERTS, JOHN L. "Factors Associated with Truancy." *Personnel and Guidance Journal* 34: 431-36; March 1956.

Roberts emphasizes characteristics of truants together with underlying causes of truancy. In situations where truancy is a deterrent to smooth progress, this article furnishes a fine insight into the problem.

SNEPP, DANIEL W. "Why the Drop-out?" *Clearing House* 27: 492-94; April 1953.

This study identifies the major causes of drop-outs in the Evansville, Indiana, high school. It was made in December of the 1950-51 school year. Seven underlying causes of the drop-out problem in this situation were identified. To deal with these seven underlying causes, eight clues to holding power are suggested. These are phrased as questions which might well serve as an evaluative instrument for schools anywhere in the nation.

TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH, and WALTER GAUMNITZ. *The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin, Status, and Trends*. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Bulletin 1954, No. 7. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954.

This bulletin brings up for review the advantages and disadvantages of the Carnegie unit as used in secondary education. This study is extremely appropriate for those who are interested in problems of articulation from level to level in secondary schools. It examines some causes for lack of smooth progress in secondary education associated with this rather "lock step" notion of secondary education. Chapter 5, the summary, presents the case for and against the Carnegie unit. It is a succinct, telling appraisal of this type of organization and presents lucidly the effect of the Carnegie unit on articulation.

Articulation in Relation to Child Development, Learning, Educational Objectives, and Curriculum Development

ADAMS, GEORGIA SACHS, and THEODORE L. TORGERSON. *Measurement and Evaluation for the Secondary-School Teacher*. New York: Dryden Press, 1956.

This book provides a treatment similar to *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary-School Teacher*, by the same authors, except that it is focused on the secondary school level. (See Torgerson and Adams on page 276.)

ANDERSON, VERNON E. *Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement*. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1956. Chapter XII.

The chapter cited treats at some length problems involved with scope and sequence for a 12-year program in an experience-centered curriculum. Anderson presents a wealth of material, including examples and illustrations of practice that should be quite helpful to those concerned with the problem of building continuity and coordination in a 12-year program.

BLOOM, BENJAMIN S., editor. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1956.

This book provides a system for classifying educational objectives, and gives guidance on the proper formulation of objectives and their relationship to curriculum development. Each category of the classification system is illustrated by sample objectives and test items which measure accomplishment of these objectives. The taxonomy is of value for articulation because it provides guidance for stating objectives clearly and comprehensively. This is essential if continuity in learning experiences is to be achieved.

BRIGGS, THOMAS H.; J. PAUL LEONARD; and JOSEPH JUSTMAN. "Articulation Between Educational Units." *Secondary Education*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1950. Chapter 8.

This chapter develops such topics as the relation between articulation and organization, admission policies and articulation, the importance of cumulative records, orientation of the pupil to the school, articulation between elementary and secondary schools, articulation between elementary

and junior high schools, articulation between junior and senior high schools, the relation of guidance functions to articulation, the role of the teacher, the effects of methods and supervision on articulation, and the importance of proper placement of the student.

CASWELL, HOLLIS L., and ARTHUR W. FOSHAY. *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Co., 1957.

This text deals with objectives and procedures of elementary education and includes an excellent treatment of the developmental levels of the elementary school child.

DAVIS, BILLIE. "And Here Is Your Desk." *NEA Journal* 45: 337-38; September 1956.

This article is based on the writer's childhood experiences as a member of a migrant family. It points up the necessity for schools to provide an atmosphere of acceptance and to find a place for the migrant child to feel at home.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *Bases for Effective Learning*. Thirty-First Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1952.

This yearbook suggests approaches to articulation in the elementary school by stressing the need for resolving conflicts in philosophy and objectives.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Education for All American Children*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1948.

Excellent illustrations are given of practices related to articulation. The point of view of the entire book underscores the importance of the theme of the present yearbook. Emphasis is placed upon planning for 12 years of education, upon the need for cooperation among teachers of all levels, and upon the significance of well-articulated learning experiences for children. Concrete examples of practice are lucidly presented and pinned securely to important theoretical considerations.

EDWARDS, W. T. "Continuity and the Curriculum." *Childhood Education* 31: 211-13; January 1955.

Continuity is not guaranteed by scope and sequence charts or titles of units. For the learner, continuity is viewed from the standpoint of purpose and use for the learner.

FOREST, ILSE. *Early Years at School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949.

This text covers the span from nursery school through the lower grades. It has particular importance to those concerned with the break between kindergarten and first grade.

GANS, ROMA; CELIA STENDLER; and MILLIE ALMY. *Teaching Young Children*. New York: World Book Co., 1952.

The authors focus attention on the continuity of development and of school programs from nursery school, through kindergarten, or into the primary grades.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. *Human Development and Education*. New York: Longmans, 1953.

The concept of developmental tasks is pursued from infancy through adulthood and is illustrated by real cases from a six-year study. The relation to the present yearbook is obvious, since Havighurst supports the idea that developmental learnings bring satisfaction whereas inadequate learning of developmental tasks impedes the individual's progress toward his optimum development. Chapter 7 includes references to other writers on the concept of developmental tasks, e.g., Erikson and Sullivan.

HOPKINS, L. T. "Continuity in Learning." *Childhood Education* 31: 214-17; January 1955.

Hopkins indicates that problems in continuity of learning arise when children are asked to accept a preconceived notion of a sequence which seems "natural" to adults but is not in keeping with children's needs.

HYMES, JAMES L., JR. *A Child Development Point of View*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956.

This short and highly readable book treats the importance of looking at children and education from the common point of view of developmental patterns.

MIEL, ALICE, editor. *Continuous Learning*. Bulletin No. 87. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1951.

This bulletin contains three articles that discuss readiness as related to continuity in learning. It also describes and analyzes types of school organization now in practice that are designed to promote continuity in learning.

MIEL, ALICE. "Planning for Continuity in the Curriculum." *Teachers College Record* 54: 131-38; December 1952.

Miel suggests that the only dependable source of continuity is the judgment of the teacher in using effective processes of group and individual planning. This will entail group planning and use of consultants so that the teacher will have an extremely broad base upon which to make his judgments.

MIEL, ALICE. "The School Curriculum in a Changing Culture." *Educational Horizons* 33: 151-54; Spring 1955.

This article sets a challenge for those who are thinking in terms of improved articulation through curriculum adjustments. It points out that a curriculum which is concerned with smooth progress is best achieved when it is planned continuously by those most closely concerned.

MORGAN, H. G. "Grouping for Growth and Development." *Childhood Education* 30: 72-75; October 1953.

Valid principles of human development serve as the only basis on which to build educational programs. Morgan gives a good treatment of the complexity of grouping when related to these principles.

PRESCOTT, DANIEL A. "What I Have Learned from Children." *Education 2000 AD*. C. W. Hunnicutt, editor. Syracuse, N. Y.: University Press, 1956. p. 41-62.

Anecdotal records about children illustrate reasons for gaps in learning. Factors which limit or interfere with children's learning during particular years at school are identified.

RASEY, MARIE I., and J. W. MENGE. *What We Learn from Children*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956.

Of particular significance to the problem of articulation is the last chapter of the book wherein descriptions of good school practices are presented. These practices are centered upon the idea that "some administrator or individual teacher had undertaken to give substance and action to beliefs similar to those we profess."

SHANE, HAROLD G., and E. T. McSWAIN. *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1951.

This text deals with a wide range of problems in elementary education. It treats well the factors of mental health, pupil progress, and curriculum.

SHANE, HAROLD G. "The Promotion Policy Dilemma." *NEA Journal* 42: 411-12; October 1953.

Shane describes "continuous progress" as a composite of approaches. Only by a flexible approach will the "dilemma" be resolved.

SWENSON, ESTHER J. "Issues Concerning Articulation Between Elementary and Secondary Schools." *High School Journal* 38: 281-88; May 1955.

This article suggests that solutions of problems of articulation should be sought through consideration of basic issues in three areas: educational objectives; child growth, development and learning; and curriculum development. Continuity of learning experience will result to the degree that these issues are met. Mention is made of the necessity of considering these basic issues in institutions of professional teacher education as well as in elementary and secondary schools.

TORGERSON, THEODORE L., and GEORGIA SACHS ADAMS. *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary School Teacher*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1956.

Because evaluation is so important to articulation as the means for determining the starting point of instruction and for keeping track of student progress, study of the contents of this book should be of value to the elementary teacher concerned with improving articulation.

TRAXLER, A. E. "Essentials of Guidance Services in Elementary Schools." *Elementary School Journal* 53: 207-10; December 1952.

Traxler proposes more effective guidance procedures that will assist pupils in their social and emotional development and thereby help them to make an approach to success in carrying on a program of study.

TYLER, RALPH W. *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. Syllabus for Education 360. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950, p. 1-83.

This statement provides a source of principles which are of critical importance in considering problems of articulation. The first section is on the purposes of the school. The second section relates to selection of learning experiences for attaining objectives. The third section is on organization of learning experiences for effective instruction. Another section is on evaluation, showing how evaluation serves to provide feedback information on how to improve the formulation of objectives, selection of learning experiences, organization of learning experiences, and the effectiveness of the evaluation procedures themselves—making the whole process a recurring cycle. The final section discusses how a staff may work on curriculum building.

WASHBURN, CARLETON W. "Adjusting the Program to the Child." *Educational Leadership* 11: 138-47; December 1953.

Washburne deals with historic patterns of attempts to meet individual differences in the classroom and hence achieve the goal of smooth progress through school. He says there is a little hard core of subject matter that every child needs to master sooner or later, and that this core of skills must be adjusted to the ability, the maturity and the readiness of each individual child.

WILES, KIMBALL. *Teaching for Better Schools*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1953.

This highly readable and informative book deals with the role of the teacher in the education process. The point of view which runs throughout this book has definite implications for improved articulation of children's learning.

Recent Reports of Articulation Practices and Procedures

ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT. *Educational Leadership* 14: 203-40; January 1957.

The entire issue deals with the problem of articulation and suggested practices for improvement. Particular attention is called to the following articles: (a) Elizabeth Zimmermann, "They Come as Strangers"; (b) Mildred Hoyt, "Newcomers as Resources"; (c) Bearnice Skeen, "When a Difference Is a Difference."

BALDWIN, LOUISE; PEGGY GREMSHAW; HELEN TELFORD; and HARIETTE GILROY. "Reducing the Gap between Kindergarten and First Grade." *The Nation's Schools* 54: 38-41; August 1954.

A pilot study of a program of integration of kindergarten with first

grade is described as it was carried out in two Detroit schools. The objectives, values, practical advantages and outcomes of the programs are discussed.

BLEIFIELD, MAURICE. "Articulation of High School and Junior High School." *High Points* 35: 53-56; September 1953.

Constructive suggestions for the articulation of science work grew out of conferences concerning articulation problems in the Newton High School, New York City.

CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. *Teacher's Guide to Education in Early Childhood*. Sacramento: the Department, 1956.

Down to earth, concrete and practical approaches are made to smooth progress for children from Kindergarten through Grade 3.

FLINKER, IRVING. "Try Some Articulation." *Journal of Education* 134: 164-65; September 1951.

Several devices are suggested for the orientation of students into the junior high school. Cooperative planning and collaboration are stressed in the assimilation of new pupils from the contributing elementary schools. This program was developed at the Strauss Junior High School, Brooklyn, New York.

FLYNN, HENRY; NORMA SAUNDERS; and ROBERT HOPPOCK. "Course for Drop-outs." *Clearing House* 28: 486-87; April 1954.

A plan for dealing with the problem of drop-outs is described. A key feature of the plan is the development of a course which is to prepare students who might terminate their formal education in the next year or two. These students are guided in making the transition from school to work or are encouraged to remain in school by being shown what a program of education might do for them.

FULLER, KENNETH A. "Junior High School Plan for Orientation of Incoming Pupils." *National Elementary Principal* 31: 7-12; February 1952.

Fuller describes a plan for orienting pupils to junior high school in the North Park Junior High School in Lockport, New York. He discusses the handling of the orientation problem during the periods prior to admission to the junior high school, the first week of school and the first month of school, and considers the people involved at these points.

GILLES, MATHILDA. "Bridging the Gap." *National Elementary Principal* 31: 24-30; February 1952.

Plans for orienting children to junior high schools over the state of Oregon are discussed. Common elements described are notably visitation days, counseling, and the use of junior high school students to explain policies and procedures of the junior high school to the elementary school students. The greatest need appears to be for administrators, teachers, parents and pupils to work together in a unified effort to do the job well. Procedures for accomplishing this are suggested.

GOLDMAN, EDYTHE, and HELEN WILCOX. "Parents and Teachers Design a Curriculum." *The National Elementary Principal* 34: 8-10; April 1955.

The authors describe a cooperative enterprise on the part of parents and teachers to design a curriculum from Kindergarten through Grade 12. They point out the role that a lay advisory council on curriculum played in this project. They indicate the effectiveness of parents and professional school people working together in formulating curriculum practices. Such cooperative efforts tend to result in better articulation from grade to grade and from school level to school level.

GOODLAD, JOHN I. "Ungrading the Elementary Grades." *NEA Journal* 44: 170-71; March 1955.

This report on efforts to break the lock step of traditional systems of school organization describes in some detail the primary school plan.

HEFFERNAN, HELEN. "The Organization of the Elementary School and the Development of Personality." *California Journal of Elementary Education* 20: 129-53; February 1952.

This is a comprehensive article with respect to the organization of the elementary school. Particularly appropriate is the section entitled "Articulation of Units of School Systems." Illustrative material is included to point up the effects on personality of disparate programs at successive levels. The major thesis the author presents is embodied in this statement, "Healthy personality will be promoted as the elementary and secondary schools of a community put themselves through the process of developing and employing an educational philosophy that will make education a continuous, developmental experience for boys and girls."

HILL, WILHELMINA. "So They Are Going to Junior High School!" *National Elementary Principal* 31: 3-6; February 1952.

The practices described are used in schools in various parts of the country to assist children in making the change from elementary school to secondary school with a minimum of abruptness. Included are programs of continuous study from Grade 1 through Grade 12, pupil orientation practices, and parent participation in appraising methods of helping children move smoothly from elementary to secondary schools.

HODGE, MARION W. "Articulation of Secondary and Elementary Schools." *California Journal of Secondary Education* 31: 322-25; October 1956.

The author reports a plan used in the Whittier Union High School District, Whittier, California to improve articulation between elementary and high schools. He also describes how the program was expanded until an articulated program from Kindergarten through Grade 12 was developed.

HYMES, JAMES L., JR. *Effective Home-School Relations*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1953.

This straightforward and lucid presentation of philosophy and promising practices of all phases of parent-teacher relationships shows how such practices lead to closer articulation between home and school.

JACKETT, EDWIN A. "A Pleasant Bridge in the Hyde Park Schools." *Clearing House* 29: 81-83; October 1954.

This is a description of a plan put into effect at Hyde Park, New York, to ease the transition from elementary to junior high school. A committee system was utilized to formulate plans and suggestions. Teacher committees have completed work on: (a) a teacher exchange plan; (b) an English curriculum for sixth and seventh grades; (c) a reading program including ways the high school can continue to work for the elementary school; (d) home work; (e) creation of a simple report that sixth grade teachers make for all pupils; and (f) reporting on traits of children who deviate enough to indicate adjustment difficulties.

LANGDON, GRACE, and IRVING M. STOUT. *Teacher-Parent Interviews*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1954.

Face-to-face relationships between parents and teachers are emphasized.

LEMMEL, WILLIAM; J. CAREY TAYLOR; MARY ADAMS; MARGERY HARRISS; JOHN HORST. "As We See Each Other." *NEA Journal* 41: 209-11; April 1952.

This article is a record of a panel discussion made by a group of school personnel from Baltimore, including teachers and administrators. This group clearly pointed up the fact that additional information is needed by teachers of all levels about the total educational process.

LEONARD, EDITH; DOROTHY D. VANDEMAN; and LILLIAN MILES. *Counseling with Parents*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1954.

Attention is focused on various ways that teachers of young children can work more closely with parents. Following suggestions presented in this book should lead to better continuity of learning.

MALBY, CLARA M. "School and Home Assist in Kindergarten Induction." *Educational Leadership* 12: 350-51; March 1955.

Malby describes a plan of orienting children to their first experience with kindergartens in the public schools of Highland Park, Illinois. The program consists of having preschool children visit the kindergarten two at a time for two or three complete sessions. Another part of the program consists of a meeting early in October at which the mothers and fathers are invited to visit the school; at this time explanation of the purposes of the year's work is made, and there is opportunity for questions about school procedures.

MALONE, J. FRANK. *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 38: 98-100; February 1954.

Malone's article is concerned with assuming more responsibility for the education of slow-learners so that progress can be made smoother and the holding power of schools lengthened.

SEASHORE, HAROLD G. "How May Tests Be Used To Obtain Better Articulation of the Total Educational Program." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 38: 383-85; February 1954.

Seashore points out in this article that testing and the results of tests form the basis of many decisions regarding articulation. He describes situations that call for tests. To deal with these situations, a testing program in the secondary school should be integrated longitudinally from the elementary grades through secondary school to college and to employment. Cross sectional integration is also desirable so that the test results may be simultaneously useful in counseling, administration, and selection.

SHEEHY, EMMA. *The Fives and Sixes Go to School*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1954.

This creative and highly readable book of suggestions for bridging the crucial gap between kindergarten and first grade stresses developmental experiences.

TOPP, ROBERT F., and C. HILL REDMAN. "Two Schools—One Major Objective." *National Elementary Principal* 31: 13-16; February 1952.

The authors attempt to point out some of the reasons for rivalry between the various levels of education and comment in a rather penetrating way with regard to the illogical reasoning that underpins this rivalry. Teachers must combine efforts to make certain that the "optimum development of the children" is in the forefront of everyone's thinking. In this respect six points are developed, which, if followed, would tend to accomplish what the title of this article implies, namely, two schools (elementary and junior high schools)—with one objective.

TUCKER, MARION B. "The Shoe Didn't Fit." *NEA Journal* 45: 159-61; March 1956.

This is a report on an ungraded plan of organization in the Appleton, Wisconsin, elementary schools. This plan of organization is indicated as being successful in terms of achievement, school attitudes and community support.

Research Procedures Used in the Study Reported in Part One of the Yearbook

THE PURPOSE of the research study was reported in Part One of this yearbook along with a very brief account of the methods used for gathering the student reports concerning factors which had helped or hindered their progress through school. This supplementary description of research procedures provides additional detail concerning the gathering of research data and the manner in which the data were analyzed.

Procedures in Gathering Data

The members of the yearbook committee represented a wide geographic distribution, living in 19 different states from the west coast to the east coast and from the northern boundary to the southern boundary of the United States. The group members decided to gather data from their home communities, seeking whatever assistance they wished from their colleagues and professional associates. An informal agreement was reached to attempt to get student reactions from schools of various types: elementary, junior high school, and senior high school levels; rural and urban schools; and school systems having various patterns of administrative organization, such as 6-3-3, 8-4, or K-12.

Interview guides: The yearbook committee, at its first meeting in New York in March 1956, decided to formulate guides for conducting group interviews with children to get their views concerning experiences they considered as having been a help or a hindrance to their school progress. Preliminary drafts were worked out in New York. All committee members had an opportunity to study these drafts after their return home and agreed to try them out if possible. They were urged to submit criticisms and suggestions for revision. In the light of these criticisms, the guide was revised in a simple form consisting of a few general questions designed to elicit rather free responses. The questions

were intentionally kept general enough so as not to indicate possible answers or limit the types of response which would be made. A copy of the guide is included at the end of Appendix A.

Administration of the interview: Copies of the group interview guide form were mailed to all committee members on April 10, 1956, with the understanding that each committee member was free to modify the form in any way that seemed to him to be desirable. He was also free to dispense with the guide entirely if he preferred to gather the information in some other way, as long as he got children to give their own free reports to the basic questions suggested in the guide. Since the guide questions were arranged on the form with large amounts of blank space for responses and since it was difficult to know in advance how many forms would be used by each committee member, the duplication of forms was delegated to the persons who used them. As it turned out, most of the committee members used the forms without modification. Of course, the oral comments made by the interviewers probably varied somewhat, though general suggestions for the interviewers were supplied with the forms.

By May 31, 1956, the agreed deadline for submitting completed replies, sets of student reports were submitted by 17 committee members from 11 states. They had gathered responses from 2853 children from primary grades through the senior high school and 121 replies from college students, who had been asked to report in terms of their experiences in school *before* they entered college. The distribution of replies by states and school levels of respondents is shown in Table 1 of Appendix B.

Analysis of Student Report Data

As the committee expected, the responses to the questions in the guide varied widely as to type. Some of this variation was no doubt due to variations in the administration of the interview, such as different ways of explaining what was meant by certain terms or different illustrations (or lack of them) provided by different committee members. Some of the variations seemed to be associated with age or grade levels of the pupils responding. There was some evidence that a very similar manner of responding ran through a few sets of papers. For example, in a certain set from one group of pupils all the children said very much the same thing, indicating that a certain mental set might have been established by the way directions were given. Some papers were much more detailed than others. Variations in ability in written expression were also apparent.

Variations such as these were expected. The committee's plan for

gathering data purposely allowed for variation in responses. This variation, however, did pose a difficult problem of analysis in determining the common threads of experience as suggested in widely varying replies.

The task of analyzing the assembled data from pupil and teacher questionnaires fell to the chairman of the yearbook committee and a group of 12 advanced graduate students enrolled in summer school at the University of Alabama in the summer of 1956.

Each member of the analysis group first read through about a hundred student questionnaires to get some ideas as to their contents. On the basis of this preliminary careful reading of well over a thousand questionnaires, the group planned and tried out several approaches to analysis of the available data.

In light of the purposes of the study and the nature of the replies the final choice of an analysis technique was one which appraised each child's report form as a totality rather than in terms of the original four questions which were proposed in the guide. This procedure ruled out unnecessary duplication (same idea expressed by the same person in more than one way) and organized data under common categories regardless of where in a child's total report the pertinent material was recorded.

One big problem was the devising of a system for recording the information children had supplied so that it could be summarized. While there was no intention to impose unrealistic or inaccurate "uniformity," it did seem necessary to work out a method for finding the common threads which did exist. The group of analysts therefore worked out a data sheet to which the material could be transferred. The data sheet and directions for its use are included at the end of Appendix A.

One data sheet was prepared for each situation, event or problem which was reported by a child. This was necessary since some children reported more than one incident; to combine them on the same data sheet would have caused confusion as to which facts were related to which incident. Occasionally, a child's total report was so vague or incomplete as to make interpretations impossible or unwise. No data sheets were prepared for 443 such reports.

The data sheets provided spaces in which the analyst could check the following:

1. Any of 17 different categories of situations giving rise to either good or poor articulation. (Eventually, only 14 proved usable.)
2. Age or grade of child at the time of each reported event, and school organization at the same time. (The latter did not prove to be usable

since it was usually difficult to determine this accurately from the reports.)

3. Other persons involved (number and classification).

4. Any of 22 different categories of reactions by the child to the situation (how he seemed to feel about it).

5. A rating of the child's reaction from very unfavorable to very favorable, also mixed reactions.

6. Any of 28 different categories of stated or implied causes of a child's reaction.

7. A statement of whether or not the difficulty was removed. (This did not prove very helpful, since it was usually difficult to tell about this from the children's reports.)

8. Pertinent direct quotations from the children's reports (recorded on reverse side of data sheets).

The group of analysts held several practice sessions at which they used the data sheets with children's reports and after which they discussed with one another the difficulties or questions which arose. Agreements were reached as to definite procedures and these agreements were summarized in a statement (previously referred to as being presented with the data sheet at the end of Appendix A). Then the analysts proceeded to the transferring of information from children's questionnaires to the data sheets. A total of 2731 children's and college students' papers were found to be usable. The information in those 2731 papers was transferred to a total of 4715 data sheets, which were grouped according to the types of situations, events, or problems reported by children. Any type of situation which represented at least 1% of the total situations was included as a category in this grouping. A miscellaneous set of 518 data sheets did not fit any of these categories and were not used in the subsequent analyses, which placed heavy emphasis on type of situation. The 4197 remaining data sheets were also classified according to grade level groups (primary, intermediate, junior high school, senior high school, and a mixed group for which the grade level at the time of the incident was not indicated).

Summarization of findings from pupil reports: The next step was the summarization of data on the 4197 student data sheets into a pattern designed to present the school articulation picture as revealed through the eyes of the students who filled out the report forms. This pattern corresponded to the framework implied by the data sheet, with the exception of items on that sheet which proved to be impractical. (For instance, some items were not consistently available on the student questionnaires, e.g., type of school organization.)

Part One of the yearbook presents the results summarized in a series of graphs, supplemented by a set of tables in Appendix B. The graphs and tables deal with: types of articulation situations; other persons

involved in the student-reported situations, both as to number of persons and their identity; types of student reaction to the situations they reported; and stated or implied causes of students' reactions. The tables are presented in pairs, each analysis being made both by school levels and by types of reported situations. The results are presented in terms of proportionate numbers of responses, percentages of total responses, and rank orders.

An Exploratory Study

The reader should bear in mind that the present research was exploratory rather than definitive. The investigators are conscious of the limitations of the procedures and of the data. A sincere attempt has been made in Part One to report findings cautiously and to indicate not only what the results seem to mean but also what they do not mean. The committee does not regret its use of a very free and unstructured technique for sampling student opinions about situations in which they have found articulation to be good or poor. Group members were agreed that the problem could be "opened up" more fully by such an approach than by a structured approach; to date they have not felt that this decision was in error, in spite of the difficulties encountered in structuring (for analysis and summarization) the previously unstructured reports. The reader must judge for himself the extent to which he approves of the procedures used for gathering students' ideas about continuity among their learning experiences. He must also make his own evaluation of the analytical procedures. His use of the results depends heavily upon these decisions.

GUIDE FOR INTERVIEWING CHILDREN—1958 ASCD YEARBOOK

While a small group of 6 to 10 children is probably best, you may work with individual children or any size group which seems appropriate to you. Some factors to consider are the maturity of the group, rapport of the group with the interviewer, previous experience with interviews, and level of writing skill of the children. The idea is to get an informal atmosphere in which the students will feel free to express their ideas.

The questions suggested below should be used by the interviewer in an informal, conversational way. Some group discussion may well precede any writing by the children—just enough discussion to clarify the task and to stimulate thinking.

Children may write their responses on a form prepared by the interviewer or on blank sheets of paper. In either case, the interviewer should make sure that identifying data are entered on the papers. Students' names are not needed. Some identifying data may be entered by the children;

other items may be entered by the interviewer for a whole set of papers. Suggestions for significant information needed include:

state.....
 approximate population of city.....
 approximate enrollment in school.....
 organization of school (K 6-3-3, K-8-4, 6-3-3, etc.).....
 urban, rural, or semi-urban community.....
 departmentalized, self-contained classrooms, or other description of type
 of class organization in the school.....
 age of student.....
 grade in school.....
 years in attendance at this school.....

Interviewer should enter race or nationality when it seems to be a pertinent factor for analysis of results.

Suggested Questions To Be Used by Interviewer:

I am a member of a group which is trying to find out how boys and girls (young people) all over the United States feel about some of the experiences they have as they move along through each school year or move from one grade or school level to another. To do this we need your help. Sometimes everything goes along very smoothly; at other times pupils feel that it is hard to move along easily during a school year or from year to year. Will you tell us how you feel about it?

1. Tell about anything that has happened to you which has helped you to feel that your progress was smooth and that the school helped you move along without unnecessary difficulty.

2. Tell about anything that has happened to you which has made it difficult for you to move along smoothly through school.

3. Tell about any experience that has been very pleasant or very unpleasant and which grew out of this question of your progress through school. It may have happened quite a while ago or lately. Write as much as you can remember about it; tell how it made you feel at the time it happened and how you feel about it now.

4. If you have moved from one school to another, tell how you felt about moving, before and after you moved. Do you feel the same way now?

Note: Particularly with young children, it may be necessary for the interviewer to take notes, use recording devices, or use stenographic reports. In such cases, a note should indicate the means of keeping the record.

With young children the interviewer should be particularly careful to modify the questions so as to make them appropriate to the maturity of the children. Questions may also need to be more specific in such ways as asking for children to tell about the change from home to kindergarten or first grade.

DATA SHEET

State _____ Age _____ Grade _____ Size _____ School _____ School Organiz. _____ Type _____ Community _____

1. Situation, event, or problem:

Illness	—	Punishments	—	Participation in extracurric. act.	—	Learning specific subject matter	—
Accidents	—	Rewards	—	Retention	—	Difference in teaching methods	—
Fighting	—	Grading	—	Teasing	—	Moving to a new school (same level)	—
Being isolated	—	Promotion	—	Being interrupted in work	—	Moving to a new school unit (same community)	—
Teacher behavior	—	Others	_____				

2. Age or grade at time of event _____ School organization at time of event _____

3. Other persons involved: 0 _____ 1 _____ 1+ _____ Who? T _____ P _____ OC _____ Other _____

4. Child's reaction to situation (How he felt about it):

Positive Reactions:

Helped, comforted	—	Grateful, appreciative	—
Hopeful, encouraged	—	Secure, accepted	—
Happy	—	Relaxed	—
Successful, confident, competent	—	Nonspecific positive	—

Negative Reactions:

Angry, rebellious, resentful	—	Defeated, hopeless	—
Ill-at-ease, embarrassed	—	Worried, anxious	—
Unhappy, sad	—	Neglected, rejected	—
Incompetent, unsuccessful	—	Afraid, self-conscious	—
Frustrated	—	Nonspecific	—
Strange, shy	—	negative	—

5. Rating of child's reaction:

Very favorable _____ Favorable _____ Neutral _____ Unfavorable _____ Very Unfavorable _____ Mixed _____

6. What caused the child to react as he did? (Cause stated _____ or implied _____)

Success with subject matter	— Opp. —	Friendliness of others	— Opp. —
Success with phys. activity	— Opp. —	Fair treatment	— Opp. —
Success in other school activity	— Opp. —	Getting along with people	— Opp. —
Orientation to bldg. and program	— Opp. —	Finding new friends	— Opp. —
Curriculum similarity	— Opp. —	Losing old friends	— Opp. —
Helpfulness of others with lessons	— Opp. —	Fear of people	— Opp. —
Concern and interest of others (personal and social)	— Opp. —	Fear of unknown	— Opp. —
		Others	_____

7. Was the difficulty removed? Yes _____ No _____

8. Result: _____

DIRECTIONS FOR USE OF DATA SHEET ON PUPIL QUESTIONNAIRE

General suggestions: The persons who collected the information from children varied considerably in their procedures. Therefore, it is necessary to attempt an appraisal of a child's response in its totality rather than depending heavily upon the particular form in which the responses were collected. Read the whole paper written by a child; then record on the data sheet the appropriate notations based on the over-all picture.

If the over-all impression gained from a child's paper is so vague or incomplete as to be impossible to interpret with any degree of accuracy, leave it out of consideration for the present. Do not prepare a data sheet for such a paper.

Give each child a number; enter this number on his original paper and on the data sheet based on his paper. If more than one data sheet is prepared for one child, give them all the same number but mark them a, b, etc.

1. *Situation, event, or problem:* This is the item which determines how many data sheets will be used for each child's response or responses. *We are trying to learn in what situations, or in connection with what events or problems, children have been helped or hindered in their progress through school. All other data refer back to this item.*

a. "Situation, event, or problem" answers the question "What happened?" What happened may be positive or negative in its connotations, but we need to start with the incident or the situation in which the child moved along smoothly or in which his progress met interference. Select from the child's paper whatever he said which tells the situation in which he found himself, the event or incident which happened to him, or the problem he faced.

b. If more than one incident or situation is mentioned, the interpretation of which might be different, use a separate data sheet for each of them. (This is particularly needed when the reactions to or consequences of the incidents are different. To combine them would give a misinterpretation in the summary.)

c. Occasionally, a paper will be found on which the child gave his reaction to a situation without specifying or describing in any way the situation to which he is reacting. In that case, enter on the line after "Other" these words: "No specific situation stated."

d. The general procedure for Item 1 is to check the blank corresponding most closely to the incident or situation or problem mentioned by the child.

e. Certain categories for Item 1 may need some interpretation. All items should be interpreted from the child's point of view. That is, *he* received a reward or punishment. "Promotion" is to be used in a broad sense to include moving from one grade to the next, not just the experience of learning he has been promoted to the next grade. Special promotions should be indicated by a supplementary comment on the line below. "Interruptions" refers to situations in which the child is interrupted in his work on a par-

ticular occasion. "Teacher behavior" refers to things teachers did which had a direct effect on the child's reaction to the whole situation, such as remarks made by the teacher. "Teasing" means the child was teased by someone else. "Learning specific subject matter" refers to comments about learning specific content such as arithmetic or science. "Difference in teaching methods" means that the child encountered a change in teachers' ways of teaching, such as manner of giving assignments, or different degrees of emphasis on drill. "Moving to a new school (same level)" means that the child moved to a different school in the same school system or in a different community but did not change grade levels, such as moving from one fourth grade class to another in a different school during the school year. "Moving to a new school unit (same community)" means that the child started in a new school division such as beginning first grade, entering the junior high school, or entering the senior high school. If a child moved to such a new school division in another community write "new" instead of "same."

f. The line designated "Other" may be used for recording any situation, problem, or event which cannot be clearly classified in any of the stated categories. It may be used to record "no specific situation" (see *c* above). It may be used to give supplementary information needed to clarify a situation which has been checked in a given category.

g. "Situation, event, or problem" tells *what happened to the child* (as an observable fact). "Child's reaction" tells *how he says he felt* about what happened. "Cause of reaction" indicates *why he reacted as he did*. Items 1, 4, and 6 represent a chain of relationship. (1) What happened? (4) How did the child react to what happened? (6) Why did he react that way? Item 1 is an objective statement of fact. Item 4 tells how the child felt (as revealed in what he said about it). Item 6 tells what the child indicated as the cause of the particular reaction he felt. Example: Hundreds of children at a time may move from elementary school to junior high school in a given school (the same event for all). Their reactions to this event are widely varied—confusion, confidence, anxiety perhaps. Even when the reaction is the same—c.g., anxiety—the causes may vary. One is anxious because of lack of success with subject matter, another because of differences in curriculum, and another because of fear of the unknown elements in the new situation.

2. *Age or grade at time of event and school organization at time of event:* At the top of the data sheet identifying data are provided *as of the time the child made his response*. However, his age, his grade placement, or the school organization of which he was a part *when the event occurred* may have more significance in interpreting his response than do similar data at the time of his written statement.

a. If the age is given at time of the event, enter it on the blank space and circle the word "age."

b. If the grade at time of the event is given, enter it on the blank space and circle the word "grade."

c. If both age and grade at time of the event are given, give both and use arrows to "age" and "grade" to identify each.

d. If neither age nor grade at time of event is indicated, put a dash in the space provided.

e. "School organization at time of event" should be filled in for over-all type if given (6-3-3) or for particular school unit if given (elementary school, junior high school, senior high school). If not given, place a dash in the space.

3. *Other persons involved*: This section refers to other persons who were participants in the event being considered—*other than the child making the response*. Only persons specifically mentioned should be considered.

a. If no other persons are directly mentioned, check the space after "O"; if only one other person, check "1"; if more than one other person, check "1+."

b. "Who?" refers to the general identity of persons checked as "1" or "1+" in the preceding spaces. "T" means "teacher or teachers"; "P" means "parent or parents"; "OC" means "other children." "Other" provides an opportunity for identifying any other person who was a part of the event or problem, such as "school nurse" or "grandmother."

Note: While it might be assumed in many cases that other pupils were present, they are not to be included in "other persons" unless they are mentioned by the reporter.

4. *Child's reaction to situation*: This section of the data sheet is included for reporting *how the reporter felt or thought about what had happened* (the situation, event, or problem). See Item 1-g for further comments.

a. Adjectives with closely related meanings have been grouped together. For example, "strange" and "shy" occur together. While the different shadings of meaning are recognized, check the short blank following the pair of words without indicating which of the two words is intended.

b. If the general tone of the child's reaction is positive but not specific enough to be classified, check "nonspecific positive."

c. If the general tone of the child's reaction is negative but not specific enough to be classified, check "nonspecific negative."

d. If the type of reaction is specific enough to classify but not listed on the data sheet, enter the appropriate term on the available space following "positive reactions" or "negative reactions" as the case may be.

e. When the child's reaction to the event or problem can be classified in more than one way, enter a "1" in the space for the primary reaction, a "2" for a reaction of secondary importance, etc. If the reactions have equal weight so far as you can tell, give them the same numerical rating. (You may also simply check all reactions of equal weight, so long as none is given a numerical rating.)

Note: Remember that these reactions are reactions to the given event or problem. Although the decision to use more than one data sheet for more than one event is made in terms of Item 1, the necessity for that

distinction becomes apparent in Section 4. If different events produce different reactions, a single data sheet would have confused reactions to different situations.

5. *Ratings of child's reactions:* This is a general rating of the child's reaction as a whole, not as to kind but as to favorableness or unfavorableness and the degree of either. This is really a rating of the reactions checked in Item 4.

a. The rater is to check only one space for Item 5. Choose the one which is most representative.

b. The difference between "neutral" and "mixed" is this: A "neutral" rating is assigned to a reaction which is neither favorable nor unfavorable, so far as you can tell. A "mixed" rating is assigned when the reaction is *both* favorable and unfavorable in its different aspects. (Example: a mixed reaction might occur when a child is happy about his new friends in a new school but unhappy about his new teacher.)

6. *Cause of the child's reactions:* Remember that this refers to the stated or implied cause of the child's reaction (Item 4). *Why* did he react as he did to the particular event or situation?

a. If the child stated the cause, check the blank after "stated"; if he did not directly state the cause but you feel sure it is implied in what he said, check the blank after "implied." A reason for the child's reaction may be said to be "implied" if he says anything from which the cause is readily gathered even though not stated. If you as the recorder have to do any interpreting, the cause is implied rather than stated.

b. "Opp." means "opposite." For example, a check on the first blank after "Success with subject matter" would mean that the cause of the child's reaction was his success with the subject matter in school; a check on the second blank after "opp." would mean that the cause of the child's reaction was his *lack* of success with subject matter.

c. Notice that the last three items (losing old friends, fear of people, and fear of unknown) are stated negatively. Therefore, "opp." would indicate a positive cause for those three items.

d. When no cause for the child's reaction is either stated or implied, write "none given" outside the parenthesis for stated or implied causes.

e. Causes of reactions may be ranked in order of importance by entering numerals (1, 2, etc.) instead of check marks when more than one cause is indicated. If more than one cause is indicated but all are of equal importance, check marks may be used for all.

7. *Was the difficulty removed?* This item was included in the data sheet because so many children made mention of it.

a. Check "yes" if the child states that the difficulty was removed or if the removal was strongly implied.

b. Check "no" if the child states that the difficulty was not removed or if there is a strong implication that the difficulty was not removed.

c. Write "?" after this item if the implication one way or the other is so slight as not to be reliable or if there is no evidence on this question.

8. *Result*: This was not asked of the children, but occasionally one of them told an eventual or later result. In that case it should be briefly stated, e.g., "Liked school much better ever since" or "hated school since then." Do not try to fill in this item unless the result is stated or very clearly implied.

9. *Pertinent quotations*: Copy at the bottom of the page or on the back of the data sheet any particularly apt quotations in which the reporter has given a particularly fitting description or comment. If the quotation fits a particular item on the data sheet, number it to indicate that relationship. If you write any quoted material on the back of the sheet, be sure to write "over" at the bottom of the front side of the sheet.

The quotations will be useful in the final report to indicate children's reactions in their own words. Choose those which are worded most effectively from a child's point of view.

Note: You may wish to mark possible quotations with red pencil. Later you can go back through such marked items and select those which are best for our purpose and copy only these on the data sheets.

APPENDIX B

Tables for Research Study

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Table 1.—States from Which Responses Were Submitted

States	Grade levels												Totals
	K-Gr. 3		Gr. 4-6		Gr. 7-9		Gr. 10-12		College		No.	%	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%			
Alabama.....	72	6.6	32	5.0	95	78.5	199	6.7	
California.....	155	95.1	507	51.6	628	66.0	304	47.6	1,654	55.6	
Florida.....	38	3.5	70	7.4	36	5.6	144	4.8	
Louisiana.....	288	26.2	3	.3	108	16.9	26	21.5	425	14.3	
Maryland.....	5	3.1	6	.6	4	.4	5	.8	20	.7	
Minnesota.....	11	1.2	28	4.4	39	1.3	
New Jersey.....	2	1.2	19	1.7	5	.5	6	.9	32	1.1	
New York.....	25	2.6	25	.8	
Oklahoma.....	1	.6	56	5.1	20	2.1	77	2.6	
Oregon.....	113	11.9	68	10.6	181	6.1	
Utah.....	53	4.8	73	7.8	52	8.1	178	6.0	
Totals and appropriate percentages.....	163	100.0	1,099	100.1	952	100.2	639	99.9	121	100.0	2,974	100.0	

Table 2.—Student Replies Classified by Types of Situations Reported and by School Level of Student^a

Types of Situation, Event, or Problem ^b	Grade levels										Totals	
	K-Gr. 3		Gr. 4-6		Gr. 7-9		Gr. 10-12		Ungraded			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Moving to new school community	250	35.5	320	25.5	149	19.0	62	15.5	358	33.93	1,139	27.1
Teacher behavior	101	14.3	231	18.4	116	14.8	85	21.2	254	24.1	787	18.8
Subject matter	116	16.5	302	24.1	88	11.2	62	15.5	106	10.0	674	16.0
Moving to next school level	28	4.0	68	5.4	265	33.8	67	16.7	56	5.3	484	11.5
Smooth progress	34	4.8	74	5.9	26	3.3	18	4.5	79	7.5	231	5.5
Extracurricular activities	11	1.6	88	7.0	30	3.8	38	9.5	49	4.6	216	5.1
Differences in teaching methods	7	1.0	20	1.6	26	3.3	32	8.0	24	2.3	109	2.6
Illness	30	4.3	27	2.2	9	1.1	4	1.0	32	3.0	102	2.4
Rewards	10	1.4	32	2.6	22	2.8	11	2.7	23	2.2	98	2.3
Punishments	31	4.4	24	1.9	11	1.4	5	1.3	27	2.6	98	2.3
Promotions	31	4.4	22	1.8	12	1.5	3	.8	16	1.5	84	2.0
Grading	2	.3	18	1.4	19	2.4	10	2.5	12	1.1	61	1.5
Retention	35	5.0	11	.9	6	.8	1	.3	5	.5	58	1.4
Accidents	19	2.7	16	1.3	5	.6	2	.5	14	1.3	56	1.3
Totals and appropriate percentages	705	100.2	1,253	100.0	783	99.8	400	100.0	1,055	99.9	4,197	99.8

^a "School level of student" here means school level at time of reported situation, not the level at the time the report was made.^b The 14 categories of situations referred to in this and other tables are those categories in which at least 1% of all situations were found. If fewer than 1% of the total situations fell in a category, it was not analyzed separately. A total of 518 data sheets are not included in this and subsequent analyses because of their miscellaneous nature. Names assigned to situations in this and several later tables are defined on pages 15 to 19 of Chapter 2.

Table 3.—Number of Other Persons Mentioned as Having Been Involved in Student-Reported Situations

(Analysis by school levels)

Grade level groupings	More than one other person mentioned		One other person mentioned		No other person mentioned		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Kindergarten—							
Grade 3.....	275	39.0	205	29.1	225	31.9	705
Grades 4-6.....	434	34.6	381	30.4	438	35.0	1,253
Grades 7-9.....	352	44.9	173	22.1	259	33.0	784
Grades 10-12.....	170	42.5	125	31.3	105	26.3	400
Unclassified.....	513	48.6	195	18.5	347	32.9	1,055
Totals and appropriate percentages.....	1,744	41.6	1,079	25.7	1,374	32.7	4,197

Table 4.—Number of Persons Mentioned as Having Been Involved in Student-Reported Situations

(Analysis by types of situations)

Types of situation	More than one other person mentioned		One other person mentioned		No other person mentioned		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Moving to new school community.....	613	53.8	58	5.1	468	41.1	1,139
Teacher behavior.....	329	41.8	458	58.2	0	0.0	787
Subject matter.....	155	23.0	249	36.9	270	40.1	674
Moving to next school level.....	227	46.9	70	14.5	187	38.6	484
Smooth progress.....	118	51.1	44	19.0	69	29.9	231
Extracurricular activi- ties.....	105	48.6	24	11.1	87	40.3	216
Differences in teaching methods.....	52	47.7	27	24.8	30	27.5	109
Illness.....	20	19.6	21	20.6	61	59.8	102
Rewards.....	32	32.7	9	9.2	57	58.1	98
Punishments.....	27	27.6	55	56.1	16	16.3	98
Promotion.....	32	38.1	17	20.2	35	41.7	84
Grading.....	12	19.7	16	26.2	33	54.1	61
Retention.....	12	20.7	16	27.6	30	51.7	58
Accidents.....	10	17.9	15	26.8	31	55.4	56
Totals and appropriate percentages.....	1,744	41.6	1,079	25.7	1,374	32.8	4,197

Table 5.—Identity of Other Persons Mentioned as Being Involved in Reported Situations for Children at Different School Levels

Grade levels	a		b		c		d		e
	Teacher		Parents		Other children		Others		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Kindergarten—									
Grade 3.....	274	50.7	149	27.6	97	18.0	20	3.7	540
Grades 4-6.....	591	60.4	108	11.0	261	26.7	19	1.9	979
Grades 7-9.....	314	50.8	69	11.1	210	34.1	25	4.0	618
Grades 10-12....	209	59.9	24	6.9	95	27.2	21	6.0	349
Ungraded.....	479	57.7	60	7.2	267	32.2	24	2.9	830
Totals and appropriate percentages	1,867	56.3	410	12.4	930	28.0	109	3.3	3,316

$$\text{Percentage} = \frac{\text{No. of persons of a certain type (Column a, b, c, or d)}}{\text{Total no. of persons mentioned (Column e)}}$$

Table 6.—Identity of Other Persons Mentioned as Being Involved in Various Types of Reported Situations

Types of situation	Teacher		Parents		Other children		Others		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Moving to new school community	198	24.4	235	29.0	360	44.4	17	2.1	810
Teacher behavior.	787	86.8	28	3.1	75	8.3	17	1.9	907
Subject matter...	311	71.2	53	12.1	57	13.0	16	3.7	437
Moving to next school level.....	144	38.2	40	10.6	172	45.6	21	5.6	377
Smooth progress..	105	53.3	19	9.6	62	31.5	11	5.6	197
Extracurricular activities.....	54	33.8	4	2.5	98	61.3	4	2.5	160
Differences in teaching methods.	74	86.0	3	3.5	8	9.3	1	1.2	86
Illness.....	23	48.9	8	17.0	10	21.3	6	12.8	47
Rewards.....	13	30.9	5	11.9	21	50.0	3	7.1	42
Punishments.....	71	72.4	5	5.1	19	19.4	3	3.1	98
Promotion.....	32	51.6	2	3.2	28	45.2	0	0.0	62
Grading.....	23	74.2	3	9.7	4	12.9	1	3.2	31
Retention.....	22	68.8	2	6.3	5	15.6	3	9.4	32
Accidents.....	10	33.3	3	10.0	11	36.7	6	20.0	30
Totals and appropriate percentages	1,867	56.3	410	12.4	930	28.0	109	3.3	3,316

$$\text{Percentage} = \frac{\text{Number of personal mentions of a certain type (Teacher, Parent, Other Children)}}{\text{Total number of personal mentions}}$$

Table 7.—Positive and Negative Reactions to Articulation Situations Classified by Grade Levels of Students at the Time of the Situation

Grade levels	Positive ^a		Negative ^a		Totals ^a	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Kindergarten—						
Grade 3.....	330	44.2	416	55.8	746	16.0
Grades 4-6.....	706	50.5	691	49.5	1,397	30.0
Grades 7-9.....	380	44.4	475	55.6	855	18.4
Grades 10-12.....	184	39.1	286	60.9	470	10.1
Ungraded.....	568	47.9	617	52.1	1,185	25.5
Totals and appropriate percentages.....	2,168	46.6	2,485	53.4	4,653	100.0

^a The %'s in the "Positive" and "Negative" columns are percents of the total number given in the "Total" column. The %'s in the "Total" column are percents of the grand total (4,653) at the foot of that column.

Table 8.—Positive and Negative Reactions to Articulation Situations Classified by Types of Situation

Types of situation	Positive ^a		Negative ^a		Totals ^a	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Moving to new school community.....	411	31.9	878	68.1	1,289	27.7
Teacher behavior.....	435	50.4	428	49.6	863	18.5
Subject matter.....	377	50.7	366	49.3	743	16.0
Moving to next school level....	247	46.1	289	53.9	536	11.5
Smooth progress.....	223	88.1	30	11.9	253	5.4
Extracurricular activities.....	206	86.2	33	13.8	239	5.1
Differences in teaching methods.....	39	30.0	91	70.0	130	2.8
Illness.....	20	18.3	89	81.7	109	2.3
Rewards.....	107	94.7	6	5.3	113	2.4
Punishments.....	11	10.5	94	89.5	105	2.3
Promotion.....	50	54.3	42	45.7	92	2.0
Grading.....	24	39.3	37	60.7	61	1.3
Retention.....	9	15.5	49	84.5	58	1.2
Accidents.....	9	14.5	53	85.5	62	1.3
Totals and appropriate percentages.....	2,170	46.6	2,485	53.4	4,653	100.0

^a The %'s in the "Positive" and "Negative" columns are percents of the total number given in the "Total" column. The %'s in the "Total" column are percents of the grand total (4,653) at the foot of that column.

Table 9.—Ratings of Student Reactions as to Type and Strength
(Analyzed by school levels)

School levels	Very favorable		Favorable		Neutral		Unfavorable		Very unfavorable		Mixed		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Kindergarten —													
Grade 3.....	28	4.1	268	38.8	31	4.5	283	41.0	41	5.9	40	5.8	691
Grades 4-6.....	137	10.9	452	35.8	54	4.3	444	35.2	83	6.6	91	7.2	1,261
Grades 7-9.....	90	12.0	238	31.6	38	5.0	266	35.3	53	7.0	68	9.0	753
Grades 10-12.....	35	9.0	98	25.3	10	2.6	168	43.4	32	8.3	44	11.4	387
Ungraded.....	56	5.4	388	37.2	28	2.7	424	40.7	57	5.5	90	8.6	1,043
Totals and appropriate percentages.....													
	346	8.4	1,444	34.9	161	3.9	1,585	38.3	266	6.4	333	8.1	4,135

Table 10.—Ratings of Student Reactions as to Type and Strength
(Analyzed by types of situations)

Types of situation	Very favorable		Favorable		Neutral		Unfavorable		Very unfavorable		Mixed		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Moving to a new school community.....	45	4.1	246	22.6	50	4.6	548	50.3	65	6.0	136	12.5	1,090
Teacher behavior.....	68	8.5	326	40.8	12	1.5	259	32.4	91	11.4	43	5.4	799
Subject matter.....	60	9.0	256	38.3	38	5.7	243	36.4	21	3.1	50	7.5	668
Moving to next school level.....	37	7.7	169	35.2	23	4.8	173	36.0	21	4.4	57	11.9	480
Smooth progress.....	33	14.4	149	65.1	17	7.4	16	7.0	11	4.8	3	1.3	229
Extracurricular activities.	47	22.0	133	62.1	0	0.0	22	10.3	4	1.9	8	3.7	214
Differences in teaching methods.....	5	4.8	23	21.9	4	3.8	57	54.3	10	9.5	6	5.7	105
Illness.....	3	3.0	10	10.0	5	5.0	71	71.0	4	4.0	7	7.0	100
Rewards.....	28	28.0	70	70.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	100
Punishments.....	6	6.1	3	3.0	2	2.0	62	62.6	24	24.2	2	2.0	99
Promotion.....	10	11.9	33	39.3	1	1.2	27	32.1	2	2.4	11	13.1	84
Grading.....	3	5.3	17	29.8	2	3.5	32	56.1	2	3.5	1	1.8	57
Retention.....	1	1.8	4	7.3	3	5.5	34	61.8	8	14.5	5	9.1	55
Accidents.....	0	0.0	5	9.1	4	7.3	40	72.7	3	5.5	3	5.5	55
Totals and appropriate percentages.....	346	8.4	1,444	34.9	161	3.9	1,585	38.3	266	6.4	333	8.1	4,135

Table 11.—Stated or Implied Causes of Students' Positive and Negative Reactions
(Analyzed by school levels)

Stated or implied causes of reactions	Total group		Kdt. Grade 3		Grades 4-6		Grades 7-9		Grades 10-12		Ungraded	
	No.	% ^a Rank	No.	% ^a Rank	No.	% ^a Rank	No.	% ^a Rank	No.	% ^a Rank	No.	% ^a Rank
Success with subject matter.....	587	13.2 1.0	111	18.3 1.0	230	16.5 1.0	91	10.3 2.0	48	9.3 2.0	107	10.0 3.0
Lack of success with subject matter.....	537	12.5 2.0	88	14.5 2.0	164	11.8 2.0	97	11.0 1.0	87	16.9 1.0	121	11.3 1.0
Concern and interest of other people.....	376	8.4 3.0	39	6.4 6.0	130	9.4 3.0	61	6.9 4.0	44	8.5 3.0	102	9.6 4.0
Losing old friends...	353	7.9 4.0	56	9.2 3.0	121	8.7 4.0	59	6.7 5.5	91	8.5 5.0
Helpfulness of others with lessons.....	299	6.7 5.0	46	7.6 4.0	94	6.8 6.0	112	10.5 2.0
Unfair treatment....	294	6.6 6.0	43	7.1 5.0	108	7.8 5.0	48	5.5 8.5	37	7.2 5.0	58	5.4 6.0
Success in nonacademic and nonphysical activities.....	235	5.3 7.0	64	7.3 3.0	42	8.1 4.0	55	5.2 7.0
Finding new friends...	221	5.0 8.0	49	5.6 7.0	32	6.2 6.0
Friendliness of others.	177	3.9 9.0
Orientation to building and program.....	153	3.4 10.0	59	6.7 5.5	27	5.2 7.0
Fear of unknown...	145	3.3 11.0	48	5.5 8.5
Lack of orientation to building and program.	143	3.2 12.0	44	5.0 10.0
Other causes combined.....	919	24.6 ...	223	36.8 ...	543	39.1 ...	260	29.5 ...	199	38.6 ...	421	39.5 ...
Totals and appropriate percentages...	4,459	...	606	...	1,390	...	880	...	516	...	1,067	...

^a The %'s in each column are percents of the total at the foot of that column. Only %'s of 5.0% or larger are included except for the Total Group, where percents are given for all causes in Ranks 1-12.

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